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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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EUROPEAN LABOR CAMPS FOR YOUTH

AT THE time of the initiation of the Civilian Conservation Corps in 1933, it was known that plans of labor camps for youth had been in operation for some years in several European countries. However, little definitive information concerning them was available in this country. When the American Youth Commission, shortly after its organization in 1935, became interested in appraising the contributions of the C.C.C., it felt that an inquiry into the foreign programs would be a valuable supplement to the study of the camps in the United States. The director of the commission's study of the C.C.C., Kenneth Holland, was asked to visit the European camps and report his findings and observations. Holland's three-hundred-page report, *Youth in European Labor Camps*, is now in print (American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., price \$2.50).

The need and the desirability of camps for youth which combine opportunities for work and education seem now to be generally admitted. At the same time there is a great diversity of opinion concerning the auspices under which such camps should be maintained and the nature of the activities and programs. The report of European experience provided by Holland should aid many persons in coming to conclusions on these issues of control and program. We

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cannot here give space to details in his descriptions but, through quoting portions of his "Summary and Conclusion," hope to interest our readers in making firsthand contact with the report. No person concerned with providing suitable arrangements of work and education for all youth can afford to ignore it.

CAMPS IN AUTHORITARIAN AND DEMOCRATIC COUNTRIES

The camps for unemployed may be roughly classified as those organized in authoritarian and semi-authoritarian countries, which tend to be highly centralized, and those organized in democratic countries, which tend to be decentralized.

Compulsion.—In authoritarian countries such as Germany and Bulgaria, the labor camps are compulsory for all young men and for some young women. On the other hand, the camps in the democracies, for example, Switzerland and the Scandinavian countries, are voluntary. In the latter countries all young men and women are not forced to go into the camps, for it is felt that all will not benefit from exactly the same type of experience. Instead, it is maintained that each individual should be given careful consideration, and a plan worked out for him in accordance with his interests, needs, and experience.

Education.—In the authoritarian states the camps are usually used to further the definite nationalistic aims which characterize these regimes. The full force of the propaganda machines is therefore loosed on the young men and young women while they are participating in the camp program. In the democratic countries, the educational program tends to reflect the interests of the various organizations responsible for the camps or the various points of view that exist in the country as a whole.

Permanency.—The authoritarian countries having camp systems tend to consider these as a permanent and distinct part of their government program, whereas most of the democratic countries look upon the camps as agencies planned and established in a time of emergency to provide satisfactory work, living conditions, and educational experience for a generation of youth who might otherwise suffer the demoralizing experience of long months, or even years, of unemployment. There is a tendency on the part of democratic countries to feel that, if the camps are to be made permanent, they should be co-ordinated with the established educational and employment agencies, and thus become an integrated part of a wide and varied training program for youth.

Personnel.—In both the authoritarian and democratic countries where the camps are permanent it has been possible to develop a selection and training procedure that provides well-qualified individuals for the work. Of course, in the selection of these individuals in authoritarian countries their political loyalties and allegiances are usually of paramount importance. Moreover, to achieve the aims of camps in authoritarian countries, the personnel is in general more efficient than that in the camps in democratic countries, where the positions on the camp

staffs are often looked upon as stopgaps for the unemployed, to be abandoned as soon as more permanent jobs are available elsewhere.

Militarism.—The authoritarian countries tend to consider their camps as pre-military or military training centers. The atmosphere of the camps and their programs are similar in many respects to those of army camps. The democracies, however, usually keep their labor services civilian in character and atmosphere, and separate and differentiate them from the military organizations by administering them through departments of social welfare or labor.

Centralization.—In authoritarian states there is the tendency to centralize authority and to make the systems of camps dependent almost entirely on one central government headquarters. The subordinate officials are responsible to the central office and are given detailed and usually rigid instructions concerning how the camps are to be conducted. In the democratic countries the authority for the camps is decentralized, and an attempt is made to provide labor service for unemployed youth by utilizing such organizations as already exist. Frequently the private organizations have first developed the camps with their own funds. Then, as the numbers of unemployed have increased, the central government has assisted them with substantial grants, but has left to the private organizations a large part of the responsibility for the development and administration of the camp program.

Work projects.—In the authoritarian states the work projects are frequently intended to increase the military efficiency of the country. The projects therefore undertake to provide additional farm land to make the country self-sufficient, insofar as food products are concerned, to harvest crops, or to construct roads, trails, and fortifications which can be used in time of war. In democratic countries the work projects generally provide vocational training opportunities for the participants, and include the building of schools, athletic fields, recreational centers, ski and hiking trails, and the conservation of natural resources.

CONCLUSION

Labor camps have been in existence since 1920. They now seem to be a permanent part of the world program for the care and training of youth. The labor camps developed after the depression that provided simply work, food, clothing, and shelter justified their existence only so long as there were unemployed youth and worth-while public-works projects which did not interfere with ordinary labor. As the immediate emergency passed and the camps developed, however, those which provided basic human needs and also performed valuable work, placed greater and greater emphasis on the training aspects of the camps. As the educational values of the camps have increased they have tended to become more permanent.

In the United States it seems to be generally admitted that the work done by the C.C.C. enrollees could be performed by contract labor at about two-thirds the present cost. It would seem then that, so far as the United States is concerned and also many of the other democratic countries, the camps cannot be

justified alone on the basis of the work performed. To be justified the camp experience must also contribute considerably to the preparation of the young man or young woman for the life which he or she must lead after leaving the camp. While the camps should continue to emphasize productive work under conditions similar to those in private industry, "in planning for the future of these camps it is imperative that their objectives be made ever more clear as primarily educational—the development of American youth—and secondarily, the conservation of our natural resources" ("Report of the Committee on Education at Fifty-fifth Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor, Atlantic City, 1935," p. 488).

The labor camp, which is becoming a permanent institution in many countries, combines work and education and bridges the gap between the time youth leave school and the time they are able to find relatively permanent employment. Functioning in this way, the labor camp is probably best adapted to the young man of limited social and economic background who has not adjusted well to the established school system.

Thus far the labor camps in the United States, as well as in many of the foreign countries, have been continued as independent agencies. As a new social institution the camps should be given ample opportunity to develop methods and techniques without the standardizing influence of established training and educational institutions. Nevertheless, if the camps are to be established on a permanent basis, they should be carefully integrated with educational, vocational, employment, and adjustment activities of institutions already in existence.

AN EARLY TWO-GRADE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

PROPOSALS for junior high school reorganization do not yet date back a half-century and first examples of this reorganization are even more recent, yet the record of dates and characteristics of the first examples is hazy and uncertain. Within the last few years the *School Review* removed some of the uncertainty concerning the first instances of separate three-grade junior high schools by drawing in this section on evidence supplied by Professor Clifton, of the Ohio State University, establishing, as far as is now known, the Indianola Junior High School in Columbus as the first three-grade unit. This school had been authorized by the Board of Education in Columbus in the summer of 1909 and began operation at the opening of the school year in September. This institution thus antedated by four months the three-grade junior high schools which began operation in Berkeley, California, in January, 1910. Putting the facts in another

way, one may say that the first separate three-grade junior high schools were established in Columbus and Berkeley in the same school year of 1909-10.

Much less is on record concerning the first examples of two-grade junior high schools or first reorganizations involving inclusion of Grades VII and VIII in six-grade secondary schools. With respect to facts concerning first examples of junior high school reorganization, the state of our knowledge is more uncertain than in the case of similar facts concerning first junior colleges, although junior high school and junior-college movements are not far from contemporaneous.

The editor has at hand a brief statement, prepared in 1935 by N. C. Heironimus, which supplies information concerning the establishment of what was probably the first two-grade junior high school. Mr. Heironimus was over a long period, up to the time of his recent death, a principal in the school system of Richmond, Indiana—a system well known for its junior high schools. In this statement the author makes a point too often overlooked by persons writing on the history of the junior high school movement: that "in any attempt to approximate this date and place [of first establishment of the junior high school] we must give our attention to the changes evolved, not to the christening of the infant."

According to Heironimus' statement, it was in 1895 that a new school building was erected "on the second square of North Eighth Street" in Richmond, which was to house a distinct unit of the city system made up of pupils in Grades VII and VIII. The feature of the school most notable to the public was the departmental plan of instruction. To the persons in charge of the school, however, the most significant feature was the curriculum, in which there was "a deliberate, purposeful attempt to change to a fuller, more vital offering of work to these pupils." In pursuance of the plan, modified algebra was substituted for review arithmetic; a "college man experienced in teaching history was employed to introduce a more vigorous form of United States history"; and for the usual rather formal oral reading an experienced teacher in this field substituted "a course in the study of units of literature." Before 1900, pupils were permitted to choose among Latin, French, and "straight Eng-

lish" courses; practical arts were offered to both boys and girls; and instruction by special teachers was offered in music and art.

Along with changes in content there came rather significant modifications on the formal side. The school was organized into home rooms, and the teachers in charge of these were given much the same standing as the present advisers. While not given the title, one of the teachers of the new faculty, a woman of much school experience and . . . with boys and girls of her own, came to have charge of many of the duties and responsibilities now delegated to a school dean. . . . Promotions were made by subjects, and a start was made toward an organized system of activities.

To round out the record of beginnings in junior high school reorganization, authentic descriptions of first efforts at six-year schools including Grades VII and VIII should be made available, not to mention further instances of separate three-grade and two-grade units. The *School Review* will be glad to have word from readers who can supply such descriptions, with dates of establishment.

OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS IN IOWA

A WHOLESOME and commendable recent development by agencies for vocational education is the study of occupational trends, the findings of which will afford an improved basis for projecting programs of occupational training and for guidance of youth in their selection of occupations. One of the state agencies that is contributing significantly in this direction is the Iowa State Board for Vocational Education. Four bulletins (Numbers 27, 28, 30, and 31) published by the board are at hand at this writing, named, respectively, *Occupational Trends in Iowa with Implications for Vocational Education*, *Changes in the Occupational Pattern of Iowa*, *Occupational Trends in the Production Occupations of Iowa*, and *Occupational Trends in the Distributive Occupations of Iowa*. F. E. Moore, director, credits the authorship of the bulletins to P. G. Frasier, research specialist of the Board for Vocational Education. Specific findings of such studies are primarily significant for states for which they are made, so that the purpose in mentioning them here must be largely to direct attention to the desirability of making them and to the procedures used. However, because readers may be interested in the conclusions, we reproduce the "Summary" and "Implications for Vocational Education" of the first bulletin mentioned.

SUMMARY

Although Iowa is predominantly an agricultural state, there is a pronounced shift to other occupational fields.

There has been a marked increase in the number of women employed in commercial pursuits.

Gainful employment of males in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits and in trade has shown considerable increase since 1910.

A decreasing percentage of boys and girls between the ages of ten to fifteen years are gainfully employed.

A considerable number of children of compulsory school age are gainfully employed in Iowa.

The major opportunities for employment of females are found in domestic and personal service, commerce, and the professions.

The major opportunities for employment of males are found in agriculture, manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, and commerce.

Homemakers constitute the largest group of gainful workers in Iowa.

The majority of children ten to fifteen years of age are employed in occupations where little or no opportunity for training or promotion is offered.

Occupational trends and occupational distribution are vital factors in vocational guidance and training.

Nearly 25 per cent of the total number of children sixteen and seventeen years of age were listed as gainfully employed by the 1930 Census.

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

1. From the standpoint of numbers alone it would seem that educational service through vocational training should be provided for homemakers, workers in agriculture, employees in trades and industry and in commerce.

2. There is a need for a more strict enforcement of the compulsory-attendance and child-labor laws. (More than six thousand children under sixteen years of age were in gainful employment in Iowa in 1930.)

3. The type of employment of young workers indicates the need for a broader program of preparatory training in Iowa.

4. An upgrading program to assure promotion or a retraining program for another occupation is needed for men fifty years of age and over.

5. In the light of the unemployment of adult workers, the compulsory school age should be raised to eighteen years and a functioning program of vocational education developed to suit the needs of the group.

TENURE OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

THE Committee on Tenure (Donald DuShane, chairman) of the National Education Association not long since released the report of a study of tenure of school administrators. The groups of administrators represented are county superintendents, city super-

intendents, and elementary- and secondary-school principals. We reproduce in the accompanying table certain of the figures reported. In particular, these figures are the average number of years in the present position for each group, the average tenure ("found by dividing the total years of experience by the number of positions held"), and the longest period in any one administrative position. They show, except between the two largest population groups, increase in tenure with increase in population.

MEDIAN TENURE IN YEARS OF 1,500 SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
GROUPED ACCORDING TO POPULATION OF DISTRICT

Population Group	In Present Position	Average Tenure	Longest Period in One Administrative Position
Rural (397)*	5.1	3.8	5.8
2,500- 5,000 (213)	8.0	5.1	8.7
5,000- 10,000 (199)	8.2	5.4	10.8
10,000- 30,000 (213)	10.3	5.8	11.8
30,000-100,000 (151)	10.8	6.6	12.4
Over 100,000 (327)	9.5	6.6	11.4
Total (1,500)	7.9	5.4	9.3

* The numbers in parentheses are the numbers of principals in the group.

The study inquired into the length of tenure as affected by the status of tenure laws. The report has the following to say in interpretation of the evidence on this relationship.

In states having no legislation or at best annual contracts, the median secondary principal has held his position 5.6 years; in states permitting contracts for more than one year, the median is 7.4 years; in the continuing contracts states, the median is 8.2 years. In states where some districts only have tenure the median is still higher, 8.5 years, while in states having state-wide tenure (or exclusive of rural areas only) the median is 9.8 years.

The average tenure . . . also shows an advantage in favor of the tenure laws as does the median of the longest period in any one administrative position; however, the advantages of tenure laws are most evident in the comparisons of the tenure of present positions because of the recency of most tenure acts.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD AND GENERAL EDUCATION

DURING the summer the General Education Board released its report for 1938. Because the subventions have gone chiefly for the study of education at the secondary level, it seems desirable for

the *School Review* to provide its readers at least a brief account of the board's interests during the year. We are able to accomplish this purpose conveniently by reproducing in full an article, published in the *New York Sun*, which, by abstract and direct quotation, presented the gist of the report in a few hundred words.

In an effort to improve the general education offered by the junior and senior high schools and the lower college divisions for young people between the ages of twelve and twenty, the General Education Board, in the past five and a half years, has spent nearly \$6,000,000 for research, it was announced today in the board's annual report for 1938, made public by Raymond B. Fosdick, president of the board.

The money went in the form of grants to such organizations as the American Council on Education, the National Education Association, the Progressive Education Association, and the Regents of the University of the State of New York, to aid them in studying the changing situation in the field of education and in making recommendations for its improvement.

"No truly representative canvass of existing knowledge and points of view on the problems of youth could have been made without the participation of these groups," the report—prepared by Robert J. Havighurst, director for general education for the Rockefeller board—stated. "With remarkable unanimity, these groups recommended a thoroughgoing reorganization of general education at the secondary level. They, as well as other organizations and institutions, developed and matured plans for experiments aimed to contribute directly to change in the schools and in other agencies for the care and education of youth.

"To find out what needed to be done in general education there had to be an initial phase of exploration and planning. Most of the funds granted by the board for this kind of activity have gone to four fact-finding and deliberative groups—the American Youth Commission, the Inquiry Staff of the Regents of the University of the State of New York, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, and the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association."

Total appropriations made by the board for this work since 1933 were \$5,786,237, of which \$1,091,820 was appropriated in 1938, according to the report.

Commenting on the need for the studies financed by the board, the report stated:

"In 1933 it was becoming clear that there were major questions to be faced regarding the kind of general education young people ought to be receiving in America. Forty years of rapid social change had seen enrolment in the senior high school mount from 6 per cent to 60 per cent of the boys and girls aged fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen. The job of the high school was no longer confined to the preparation of boys and girls for college. Young people were going to high school with the most diverse plans for the future. They *had* to go to high school because legislation, custom, and technological change were making it

increasingly difficult for them to get jobs before they had reached eighteen or twenty years. . . .

"But the high school to which the mass of young people went was still primarily a college-preparatory institution," the report continued. "In spite of numerous modifications and adaptations, its curriculum was geared to the requirements of a minority of its students. A general education that would aim at producing well-informed, healthy, and able citizens, self-supporting workers, good homemakers, and men and women able to engage pleasurably in leisure-time activities, was urgently needed. . . .

"The General Education Board could not, of course, commit itself to any one approach to these problems. Rather, it has helped a number of responsible and representative organizations and institutions to study the changing situation, to formulate what they believe to be the underlying purposes of a general education for young people, and to recommend a series of changes calculated to make the systematic care and education of youth serve these purposes better."

Since 1933, the board has appropriated more than a million dollars for the improvement of instructional materials and methods, according to the report. More than \$600,000 of this money was used for experimentation with motion pictures and radio as educational aids.

An additional \$300,000 has been appropriated for the improvement of teacher education.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

OUR "Here and There" for the month reports seven innovations in six schools. They have to do with a telescope for a high school and junior college, a pupil report on a core curriculum, a public-relations leaflet, a placement department, a pupils' "Smoking Council," the published history of a high school, and a "Vocations Week." The six schools are in five states.

Telescope shared by high school and junior college By the will of the late John Witte, a local enthusiast in amateur astronomy, a new telescope has been installed in the senior high school and junior college at Burlington, Iowa, of which Robert White, Jr., is principal. This telescope is reported to have the largest lens in any telescope between the Yerkes Observatory and the Rocky Mountains—larger than the telescopes owned by many colleges and universities in the region. The cost was in the neighborhood of fifty thousand dollars. The junior college offers a course in descriptive astronomy, and the high school maintains an astronomy club.

A pupil report of experiences in a core curriculum

Under the title "Now It May Be Told," the Seniors in the Wells High School of Chicago (Paul R. Pierce, principal) have set down in their annual for 1939 the record of their experiences with the core curriculum instituted when they were Freshmen. This portion of the annual extends through sixteen pages and is divided into sections called "Our Plot Is Born," "We Enter the Picture," "The School Is Our Stage," "We Write Our Own Script," "Our Scenes Are Self-directed," "We Use Outdoor Settings," "We Build Up the Cast," "Music Enriches Our Picture," "We Register Action," and "Prepared for Our Premier." The pupils' statements are sufficiently concrete and specific and the illustrations pointed enough to suggest the outlines of the core curriculum and of the major aspects of the whole program of this innovating school. This portion of the annual has been reprinted for purposes of local interpretation. Word has been received that persons outside the community may have copies of the reprint for fifteen cents.

A leaflet of information from a junior high school

The Benjamin Franklin Junior High School of Uniontown, Pennsylvania, of which Dan R. Kovar is principal, publishes a four-page leaflet, *School Notes*, "to bring you ideas and news about your school." The little periodical appears to be intended for pupils and parents. The nature of the content is suggested by the following titles of items published in copies at hand: "Attendance," "Textbooks and Supplies," "Lunch Hour," "Study," "Report Cards," "Athlete's Foot," "Intramural Games," "Daylight Class Parties," and "Cleanliness." *School Notes* serves as a simple, inexpensive, and convenient medium of public relations.

Experiment with placement service and "Smoking Council" in one school

The Oak Park and River Forest Township High School in Oak Park, Illinois, of which M. R. McDaniel is principal, reports two diverse innovations, one having to do with the placing of graduates and the other with smoking near the school and at school affairs. The placement department was introduced a year ago, and one man, known as "placement director,"

gives half his time to endeavors to find suitable jobs for the 40 per cent of graduates who do not continue in higher institutions and for pupils who need part-time work while attending high school. Much of the director's time on afternoons and Saturdays is spent in visiting heads of business firms in the Chicago region in order to learn present-day needs of employers and know places where jobs are to be found. Many employers call the school when they want help.

For many years this school has had a "Smoking Council" made up of ten boys who, without teacher assistance, enforce two simple rules concerning smoking: (1) no smoking or display of cigarettes by pupils of the school within four blocks of the grounds between 7:30 and 6:30 on any school day and (2) no smoking or display of cigarettes by pupils of the school during, one hour before, and one hour after any athletic event, school play, or other school affair. This council is chosen in September by a group of representatives elected from Junior and Senior home rooms, these representatives selecting from their own number three Juniors and four Seniors. The three Juniors serve two years. The council meets once a week to hear reports of violations and to call before it boys whose names have been reported. It gives warnings to first offenders and imposes after-school or before-school penalties on pupils coming before it a second time. The ten boys on the council do no active sleuthing but, as they go to and from school in various directions, are alert for violations of the rules. Other boys may, and frequently do, report offenders. About ten to twelve offenders a month are found during the autumn, but the number later in the year dwindles to two or three.

High-school history by a The Northwestern High School of Detroit, Michigan, of which Byron J. Rivett is principal, which in 1938-39 rounded out a quarter-century of operation, celebrated the event by publication of a history covering the period. The history, a cloth-bound book of more than a hundred pages, was compiled and written by the Federal Writers' Project of the Works Progress Administration for the state of Michigan. The actual work was done by G. L. Weeks and P. E. Smith. Much of the reference material was found in the

school's annual, the *Norwester*, which has been published continuously since 1915. Another source was the school's newspaper, the *Colt*. Contents include materials on the early background, attendance through the years, history of the curriculum, "working structure," athletics, publications, and lists of graduates.

"Vocations Week" as part of a guidance program Edward E. Pickard, principal of Central High School of Hopewell Township at Pennington, New Jersey, submits materials descriptive of a "Vocations Week" which is part of the guidance program of the school. The week described, referred to as "biennial," is the second of its kind held in the school, and during the past year it took place late in March. In anticipation of the week, the home-room period on a Friday in mid-February was used for the discussion of occupations. During this period a special mimeographed bulletin ("Vocations Week Bulletin No. 2") was distributed to the pupils, together with a "Guidance Questionnaire." The bulletin listed a large number of occupations, from which each pupil was asked to select three on which he would like interviews. The questionnaire inquired into the recreational interests, summer and after-school employments, life-work preferences, etc., of the pupils; and a "Committee on Interviews" of the faculty studied the responses of pupils to the bulletin and the questionnaire in order to set up a suitable program of interviews. The "interviewers," persons outside the school, represented numerous occupations, many of the same persons being invited who had shared in the same "week" two years before. The activities of Vocations Week culminated, on Friday evening, with these interviews. Throughout the week all teachers related the work of their subjects to the theme of the week. The schedule of interviewers provided for three fifty-minute periods for each interviewer and each pupil. No more than ten pupils were scheduled for an interviewer, and all assignments were made on a master-schedule. All interviewers met at the high school at the dinner hour for a short conference prior to the first interview period.

WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

The authors of articles in the current issue O. I. FREDERICK, director of curriculum programs at Saginaw and Battle Creek, Michigan, and lecturer in education at the University of Michigan. N. WILLIAM NEWSOM, professor of education at Temple University. RICHARD S. POLLACK, supervising principal in the public schools of Lindenwold, New Jersey. LOUISE ROBLES, reading specialist in the Dover Special School District at Dover, Delaware. GEORGE C. BOOTH, instructor of journalism in the Long Beach Junior College, Long Beach, California. MARVIN L. SNODDY, instructor in physical education, science, and health in the high school at Switz City, Indiana. J. R. SHANNON, professor of education at Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana. WILLIAM G. BRINK, professor of education and assistant dean of the Graduate School at Northwestern University. GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, dean of the School of Education at Stanford University. AUBREY E. HAAN, graduate student at Stanford University.

The writers of reviews in the current issue PAUL R. PIERCE, principal of Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois. ANNE E. PIERCE, head of the Department of Music in the Experimental Schools and assistant professor of music at the University of Iowa. A. E. MALLORY, professor of mathematics at the Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado. D. S. BRAINARD, professor of history at State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota. W. G. WHITFORD, associate professor of art education at the University of Chicago. ELMER W. ROWLEY, instructor in vocational agriculture at Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, Illinois.

THE CURRICULUM IN THE LIGHT OF RESEARCH

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INTRODUCTION

SEVERAL hundred books, research investigations, courses of study, and articles were scanned, and 180 of them were examined carefully as a basis for this report. Thus the preparation of the report itself has been a research undertaking. The report gives very briefly a synthesis and an interpretation of the findings of research with respect to the extent and the organization of curriculum programs, educational points of view, purposes or aims of education, organization and scope of the curriculum, general content and sequence of the curriculum, general aspects of evaluation, and trends in curriculum development.

Little carefully controlled experimental research has been done concerning the general aspects of curriculum development and courses of study. Most of the research in this field has been of the following types: surveys of current practices, surveys of newer practices, studies of groups of outstanding books and courses of study, composites of personal judgments, determination of trends, surveys of communities and larger areas, and studies of the behavior and the development of children. More well planned and well co-ordinated objective research on various aspects of curriculum development is needed.

EXTENT AND ORGANIZATION OF CURRICULUM PROGRAMS

Extent of curriculum development.—More than three-fourths of the states have state-wide curriculum programs, and thousands of schools and school systems in these and other states are engaged in systematic efforts to improve the curriculums in their schools (21). The trend is to make curriculum programs more inclusive in terms of grades, phases of the curriculum, number of schools, and number

of years involved. The intensive phases of many recent curriculum programs have extended over a period of five years or more. As an aid to curriculum development, numerous curriculum laboratories or workshops have been developed in recent years in colleges and universities.

Organization and scope of state curriculum programs.—Some state curriculum programs are much more comprehensively organized than are others, but such individuals and groups as the following are ordinarily utilized: state board of education, state executive or steering committee, curriculum director, state supervisors, general consultants, advisory committee of educational leaders, advisory committee of laymen, state committees, regional committees, county and city superintendents of schools, supervisors, principals, and teachers.

State committees deal with such phases of curriculum development as social and economic conditions in the state, points of view, aims of education, procedures, research, scope and sequence, studies of pupils and of learning, community relations of the curriculum, and tentative courses of study or other curriculum bulletins.

Factors to consider in local curriculum programs.—While the detailed organizations and plans of curriculum development vary greatly in different communities, many of them consider such factors as the following: (1) organizing the entire faculty for curriculum improvement through the co-operation of all departments and all grade levels; (2) developing an adequate professional library; (3) making provision for school and community co-operation; (4) developing a philosophy of education or points of view; (5) developing aims of education in accord with the philosophy of the school or school system; (6) surveying important aspects of life in the community; (7) studying the abilities, interests, and needs of the pupils; (8) improving the content and the sequence of the curriculum; (9) improving teaching procedures; (10) developing plans for appraising pupil progress.

POINTS OF VIEW

Some of the major points of view presented in recent courses of study are summarized below, and others are implied in the trends stated at the end of this article.

1. Education is an essential factor in all progress, and the school

should assume greater responsibilities as living becomes more complex.

2. The school curriculum includes all the experiences of the pupils at school and the experiences gained from community contacts under the guidance of teachers.

3. The curriculum should deal with all major areas or phases of individual and group life and should help pupils to engage in a wide variety of meaningful and desirable activities outside the school.

4. The school should be a democracy in which pupils learn to share and to co-operate both in work and in play.

5. Learning requires self-activity by the pupils.

6. Education should preserve desirable differences of pupils, develop a wide range of wholesome interests, and cultivate powers of expression unique with the individual.

7. The teacher and the pupils should co-operatively set up goals which they wish to attain and should co-operatively plan, launch, develop, and evaluate their school work.

8. Education should be concerned with the growth of pupils in their ability to meet new situations appropriately.

9. Thought, feeling, and action are closely related, and an individual reacts as a total personality.

10. Curriculum programs should stimulate critical thinking on the part of pupils, parents, teachers, supervisors, and administrators.

11. The schools should co-operate actively with other agencies and organizations in the community in order to promote the greatest welfare of children, youth, and adults.

12. In order that it may meet the needs of children, youth, and adults in a world of change, the curriculum should be evaluated and improved continuously.

PURPOSES OR AIMS OF EDUCATION

In recent years the concept of the reactions of individuals as total personalities has tended to shorten lists of aims of education and to increase the emphasis on the development of desirable abilities, understandings, attitudes, and appreciations through appropriate kinds of action or behavior. A greater realization of the relation between the purposes or the aims of education and the type of society in which education takes place has led to a greater emphasis

on aims conducive to democracy as a way of life. More attention is being given, in lists of aims of education, to the need for the all-round wholesome development of the individual and to the need for helping individuals to develop the ability and the desire to participate effectively and happily in all major areas of living.

In consideration of the purposes or the aims of education, special attention may well be given to the "Social-economic Goals of America" (28), to a report of the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study (26), and to a report of the Educational Policies Commission (10).

Briefly, the ten social-economic goals of America, as stated by a committee of the National Education Association, are: hereditary strength, physical security, skills and knowledges, values and outlooks, an active and flexible personality, suitable occupation, economic security, mental security, freedom, and fair play and equal opportunity (28).

After examining a large number of aims of education as stated by teachers in thirty widely distributed schools, the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study sponsored by the Progressive Education Association developed working divisions of objectives in terms of: attitudes; aspects of thinking; social adjustment and social sensitivity; interests, aims, purposes, appreciations; study skills and work habits; functional information; creativeness; and functional social philosophy (26).

The Educational Policies Commission of the American Association of School Administrators and the National Education Association holds that the ultimate general aim of all education is desirable behavior. The entire field of conduct is divided into four large aspects, centering in the person himself, his relations to others, the creation and the use of material wealth, and socio-civic activities. Each aspect is analyzed carefully for the objectives of self-realization, the objectives of human relationship, the objectives of economic efficiency, and the objectives of civic responsibility (10).

ORGANIZATION AND SCOPE OF THE CURRICULUM

Introduction.—Schools are giving an increasing amount of attention to developing more and better relationships between the activities and the experiences of the pupils by utilizing such means as

units of work, broad-field courses, correlation of subject fields, and a core curriculum.

Units of work or units of experience.—Numerous classifications of units of work have been made. The two major types of units may be classified as subject-matter units and experience units. Subject-matter units include those organized around usual textbook chapters or topics; units organized around major generalizations, principles, or themes; and units organized around aspects of the environment, such as air, water, sky, or climate. Experience units are based on interests of pupils, on their felt needs, on dominant purposes of pupils, or on a combination of these.

Some subject-matter units draw entirely on one subject field, but others draw, at least to some extent, on more than one subject field. Some experience units draw primarily or entirely on one subject field. However, most experience units in which consideration is given to all appropriate angles involve information from several or many subject fields. The units which cut across subject fields are taught by one teacher or co-operatively by two or more teachers.

Plans for units of work or units of experience, and reports of units actually taught, have been written under a wide variety of headings. Many of these headings are alike in reality although worded differently. Most written units present the aims or desired outcomes; suggestions for starting, developing, and closing the unit; and bibliographies for pupils and teachers. In some cases the significance of the unit, objects of interest to the pupils, and evaluation are also discussed.

The range of types of activities included in units is indicated by such beginning words as the following:

planning	constructing	calculating	dancing
developing	modeling	testing	staging
evaluating	drawing	measuring	making friezes
applying	painting	buying	summarizing
reading	singing	selling	concluding
writing	describing	exchanging	exhibiting
comparing	telling	sharing	displaying
investigating	discussing	co-operating	giving an as-
discovering	organizing	taking trips	sembly pro-
experimenting	reporting	observing	gram
building	estimating	playing	

Broad-field courses, correlation, and core curriculum.—During the past two decades there has been a definite trend toward combining separate subjects into broad subject fields, such as science, mathematics, social science, and language arts.

Increasing attention in recent years has been given to correlating the work in different subject fields, such as fine arts and physical education, mathematics and science, fine arts and language arts, and language arts and social studies. Usually a rather limited amount of correlation results.

In recent years much attention has been given, in both elementary and secondary schools, to the development of a unified, integrated core curriculum. The trend is for the core curriculum to be organized into units of experience based on significant situations, phases of life, interests and needs of pupils, or problems which pupils now face or will face in the future.

General scope and organization of the curriculum.—During the past decade many schools have been giving increased attention to providing adequately for the development of an understanding of the physical and the social environments and a desire to aid in improving them; the mastery of basic skills and techniques actually needed in life; special opportunities for pupils to engage in creative, artistic, and recreational activities; and special opportunities for developing individual interests and aptitudes.

To a greater and greater extent the most vital elements of activities formerly called extra-curriculum are being incorporated into the curriculum in a basic and an integral way.

Scope of the curriculum.—Whether the curriculum is organized as subjects or in terms of a core curriculum and elective courses, its scope and content should be broad and dynamic.

Studies of many classifications of social functions or major areas of living have been made. A study of thirty-eight such classifications resulted in the following list of nine areas of living: protecting life and health, making a home, conserving and improving material conditions, co-operating in social and civic action, getting a living, securing an education, expressing religious impulses, expressing aesthetic impulses, and engaging in recreation (12). On the basis of a study of thirty classifications of areas of living, the Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and Directors

of Instruction and the Society for Curriculum Study recommended the following eight as a basis for the scope of the curriculum: living in the home, leisure, citizenship, organized group life, consumption, production, communication, and transportation (17).

CONTENT AND SEQUENCE OF THE CURRICULUM

Techniques employed to determine curriculum content.—Some of the major techniques employed in determining curriculum content are: job analyses, activity analyses, studies of usage, analyses of errors or shortages, observational techniques, analyses of children's activities, interest studies, analyses of knowledge and skills needed in everyday reading, studies of trends, studies of frontier thinking, investigations of dominant interests and persistent needs, and a synthesis of research utilizing the findings of many kinds of investigations.

Sequence of the curriculum.—The trend is to give greater attention to avoiding abrupt and pronounced breaks in the activities of pupils within a given day and to provide gradual transitions in the types of work in successive days, weeks, and years. Numerous curriculum programs of states and cities indicate the grade placement of units of work by using centers of interest for different grades or groups of grades. Some schools have an emerging type of curriculum developed co-operatively by the pupils and teacher from day to day, week to week, and year to year without the use of suggestive units or centers of emphasis in tentative courses of study.

Units of work allocated to grades.—Units dealing with the following topics are fairly typical of those included in early elementary grades: home, farm, garden, seasons, bakery, markets, wheat, milk, health, post office, newspaper, library, schools, zoo, parks and playgrounds, and transportation.

Samples of titles of units for Grade V taken from various curriculum programs are: "Growth of Important Cities," "Fishing," "Lumbering," "Manufacturing," "Shelter," "Clothing," "Exploration," "Homes," "Preventing Disease," and "Recreation."

Examples of some of the suggestive units of work for Grades VIII and XI which resulted from several investigations (12, 13, 14, 15) follow.

GRADE VIII

Center of emphasis: Adjusting life to scientific inventions and machine production (in our state, our nation, and other countries through the ages).

Problems of life: Inventing and using machines; adjusting the home to scientific inventions and to machine production; using modern inventions in improving educational opportunities; and adjusting to, and using, new forms and types of art suited to the machine age.

GRADE XI

Center of emphasis: Controlling and improving physical, economic, social, and business conditions (in our state, our nation, and other countries through the ages).

Problems of life: Protecting the physical and the mental health of industrial workers, conserving and developing natural resources, producing goods, exchanging goods, consuming goods intelligently, co-operating with social agencies to improve economic and business conditions, relating art to business, and controlling and improving commercial amusements.

EVALUATION OF THE CURRICULUM

Evaluation of different types of curriculum practices.—A number of recent investigations, using standardized achievement tests and taking into account native ability, indicate that in subject-matter learnings pupils in activity curriculums do as well as pupils in conventional curriculums (7, 8). When measured by available tests and devices or those developed by the investigators, the pupils in elementary and secondary schools using the newer types of practices were found to be somewhat superior in obtaining and organizing information; in interpreting facts and drawing inferences; in applying generalizations to new situations; in civic and scientific beliefs; and in initiative, creativeness, honesty, and co-operativeness. Some of the differences were not sufficiently great to be conclusive (7, 8, 31, 32).

Evaluation of curriculum programs and courses of study.—Courses of study and other curriculum bulletins are prepared as sources of suggestion and help to teachers in enriching and vitalizing the experiences of their pupils. Various means of appraising courses of study have been used, such as sets of criteria and the judgments of teachers, educational leaders, pupils, and parents. A carefully formulated set of criteria for rating courses of study has been published

by Bruner (2). Criteria for evaluating courses of study and curriculum programs were reported in a recent publication entitled *The Changing Curriculum* (17).

SUMMARY OF TRENDS

Although educational leaders may differ as to the desirability of a few of these, some of the major trends with respect to the curriculum and curriculum development may be summarized as follows:

1. More extensive, comprehensive, far-reaching, and continuous efforts to improve the curriculum.
2. Increasing amount of pupil purposing, planning, developing, and evaluating of their experiences, with the co-operation and the guidance of the teacher.
3. Making the experiences of the pupils more life-centered, purposeful, and dynamic.
4. Greater effort to develop and to use facts and skills in meaningful and significant situations.
5. An increasing use of a combination of two or three of the following: broad-field courses, core curriculum, and elective subjects and activities.
6. More opportunities in school for creative expression and enjoyment; critical and reflective thinking; harmonious co-operation; and development of insights, initiative, and adaptability.
7. More comprehensive programs of evaluation of pupils' experiences and growth in a wider range of desirable types of behavior.
8. More systematic and effective efforts to discover and to provide for the wide range of real needs and best interests of all the pupils at various stages of development.
9. Larger amount of flexibility in time allotment, sequence of units, and grade placement of curriculum content.
10. Wider variety of curriculum materials, instructional aids, and activities of pupils.
11. Increasing number of comprehensive studies of various aspects of human living in local communities, states, regions, and the nation as a basis for vitalizing the curriculum.
12. Providing in courses of study and other curriculum bulletins a larger number and a greater variety of helpful suggestions.
13. More emphasis on present-day problems and situations, with study of the past to ascertain trends and effective modes of procedure for dealing with the present and the future.
14. More co-operative planning and better co-ordination of efforts of schools and other agencies and organizations in the community to provide for the individual and group needs of children, youth, and adults.

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COMPUTING TEACHER LOAD: ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON OF VARIOUS METHODS

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*

PURPOSE OF THIS INVESTIGATION

WITH the partial emergence of the school budget from the shackles of the depression years, the question of teachers' loads once more obtrudes on the forward-looking administrator and supervisor. Any attempt to study this problem is hindered both by the lack of objective data on the relative value and utility of the various methods of measurement and by no little confusion in the matter of defining teacher load in a specific manner. The study reported in this article represents a first step in the as yet untouched field of evaluating the extant methods of computing and measuring teacher load on a comparative basis. No claim is made that this investigation represents the complete and final solution of the problem, for during the carrying-through of the work many points at first obscure became apparent and many refinements in technique suggested themselves.

A review of the literature on the problem reveals a mass of information dealing with the manner in which certain groups of teachers in many different localities spent their time. This information was obtained as the result of time studies and job analyses carried out locally by certain investigators. The data so obtained were valuable because they showed enough general agreement to warrant conclusions concerning the proportion of their time that teachers spend in various activities both in and out of school and because they provided a basis on which other writers could and did develop methods for evaluating teacher load.

A most significant feature of the writings on the subject, both past and present, is that probably no two persons ever mean exactly the

same thing when they speak of "teacher load." This disagreement has not operated to clarify the measurement situation. There are two main opinions about what constitutes teacher load.

The first opinion, usually subscribed to by the teachers themselves, is that "teacher load" includes everything that teachers have to do, both in and out of school, in order to remain in good standing in their positions. The computation of teacher load on this basis requires a great deal of estimate and assumption or, as the alternative, a burdensome time study, unless there can be established, for activities not admitting of direct measurement, satisfactory objective standards which can be applied to the directly measured basis as a flat correction. In any event the methods so far suggested for measuring on this basis are either so complicated or so completely empirical that administrators hesitate to use them.

The second idea of teacher load is that usually held by administrators and supervisors. They contend, and rightly to a degree, that they are interested not so much in the so-called "total load" of a teacher as in the relations between the loads of teachers. Their viewpoint, one of administrative utility, places the value of the comparative aspect above that of the accurate totality. They will generally admit, however, that, if a method were devised which could be objectively shown to be accurate in the total aspect, simple to use, and at the same time capable of giving the necessary comparative information, it would be superior to any method now generally used.

These two decidedly different sets of requirements proposed by the administration and the staff, respectively, must be kept in mind when the results of this study are interpreted, for they naturally tend to almost diametrically opposite preferences on the parts of the two groups.

The purpose of this study is to list the available methods for computing teacher load and to compare these in such a manner as to facilitate the choice of one method for the use of the administrator or supervisor.

PROCEDURE AND RESULTS

The study may be conveniently portrayed under the following eight steps.

1. Ten methods of computing teacher load were found. Each was

TABLE 1
TEN METHODS OF COMPUTING TEACHER LOAD

Source	Procedure	Unit of Results	Auxiliary Requirement
1. Middle States Association (5).....	Count class periods from schedule	Class periods per week	
2. Middle States Association (5).....	Total number of pupils multiplied by total number of teaching hours	Pupil-periods or pupil-hours per day or week	
3. Almack and Bursch (1).....	Number of pupils multiplied by number of hours multiplied by subject weight for each subject and activity. Add individual items to get total load	Weighted pupil-periods or pupil-hours	Table of subject weights
4. Brown and Fritze-meier (2).....	Same as No. 3, but add to results a percentage correction for number of teaching fields and for number of preparations	Weighted pupil-periods or pupil-hours	Table of subject weights. Table of percentage corrections for fields and preparations
5. Douglass, 1928 (3)	$NC + \frac{NP - 25 NC}{60} + \frac{P - 3^*}{3}$	Theoretical class periods per day or per week	
6. Douglass, 1932 (4)	$\left[CP - \frac{2 Dup}{10} + \frac{(NP - 20 CP)}{100} + \frac{PC}{2} \right] \left[\frac{PL + 55}{100} \right]^\dagger$	Theoretical class periods per day or per week	
7. Philadelphia public schools (6).....	Total assigned teaching periods plus total assigned periods for co-operations plus roster allowance for unassigned activities	Total assigned periods	

* NC = number of classes. NP = number of pupils. P = preparations.

† CP = class periods spent in classroom per week.

Dup = number of class periods spent per week in classroom teaching classes for which the preparation is very similar to that for some other section, not including the original section.

NP = number of pupils in classes per week.

PC = number of class periods spent per week in supervision of the study hall, student activities, teachers' meetings, committee work, assisting in administrative or supervisory work, or other co-operations.

PL = gross length in minutes of class periods.

TABLE 1—Continued

Source	Procedure	Unit of Results	Auxiliary Requirement
8. Reichard (7), Koos (8).....	Number of periods or hours for each class or activity multiplied by number of minutes required for one period of that activity (taken from table). Add for total and divide by 5 to convert into points	Theoretical points	Table of "Time Required for One Period of Activity"
9. Tritt and Keyes (9).....	Apply method in No. 5 for each subject and multiply this result by the coefficient for that subject. Include home rooms and study halls. Add for total load	Theoretical class periods	Table of subject coefficients
10. Ward (10).....	Find total time in all assigned duties per day. Add 20 minutes per day for each separate lesson preparation for week. Add 3 minutes per pupil per class for paper work. Add reasonable time for other activities. Find total	Hours per week

listed, and the manner of applying it was indicated. For future reference each method was given an identifying number. The methods are presented in Table 1.

2. Any formalized method for computing teacher load involves the assumption of certain factors as determinants of load. Since there is no agreement on what these factors are, each method investigated was found to be based on a different set of assumptions. This fact necessitated, first, a preliminary comparison of the methods on the basis of the determining factors which they considered and those which they neglected. For this purpose a check list was set up which presented, in a rather generalized form, all the determining factors considered in all the methods. The individual methods were then compared with this list, and each was given a numerical score indicating the number of determining factors on which it was based.

Thus, if the check list contained nine factors as basic determinants of teacher load, and a particular method is based on a consideration of only three of these, the other six being neglected, the score of that method would be three. The scores arrived at in this way were then transposed into ranks on the assumption that the method having the highest score considered the greatest number of basic determinants and was, therefore, superior to methods having smaller scores. Thus the highest score received the rank of one; the next highest, the rank of two; and so on. Methods having the same score received the same rank.

The check list used is given below, and the ranks of the methods are given in Table 2.

CHECK LIST OF THE FACTORS AFFECTING TEACHER LOAD

1. General factors concerned with pupil-hour load (total number of pupils, total number of hours spent in teaching classes)
2. Specific factors concerned with pupil-hour load (number of pupils per period, number of periods per day)
3. Factors concerned with differentiating study rooms, home rooms, and laboratories from recitations
4. Factors concerned with differentiation between different subjects on the basis of difficulty in teaching (subject weights and other blanket corrections)
5. Factors concerned with general school duties other than actual classroom instruction and its requisites of preparation, pupil conferences, and paper work (extra-curriculum duties, assemblies, clubs, sponsoring, teachers' meetings, administrative conferences, and required social and civic services)
6. Factors concerned with number of different preparations
7. Factors concerned with number of different teaching fields
8. Factors concerned only with class periods per teacher
9. Factors concerned with class periods per teacher, both instructional and extra-instructional

3. It was next desired to find out which method was easiest to use from the mechanical standpoint. The methods were examined for the purpose of discovering which requires data most readily available to the user and which requires the least time for actual computation. The schedule of a teacher was chosen, more or less at random, from the office files, and the teacher's load was computed by all ten methods. As the computations were made by each method, records were kept showing whether the information re-

quired was apparent from the schedule or whether it required separate research, an interview with the teacher, or a time study of the teacher's activities. In the order named, these items were considered progressively more difficult. In this manner the methods were ranked as to availability of information, the method requiring the least research being given the rank of one. Since several methods required approximately equal amounts of research and since these were given equal ranks, the method requiring the greatest amount of work in collecting data came out with a rank of five. In a similar

TABLE 2
TEN METHODS OF COMPUTING TEACHER LOAD RANKED ACCORDING
TO NUMBER OF CRITERIA GIVEN CONSIDERATION

Method	Check List Factors Included	Total Number of Factors Included	Rank of Method
1. Middle States Association	3, 8	2	5
2. Middle States Association	1, 3	2	5
3. Almack and Bursch	2, 3, 4, part of 5	3.5	4
4. Brown and Fritzsche	2, 3, 4, parts of 5, 6, 7	4.5	2
5. Douglass, 1928	2, 6	2	5
6. Douglass, 1932	2, 3, 5, part of 6	3.5	4
7. Philadelphia public schools	3, 4, 5, 9	4	3
8. Reichard, Koos	4, 5, 6, 7, part of 3	4.5	2
9. Tritt and Keyes	2, 3, 4, 5, part of 6	4.5	2
10. Ward	1, 3, 4, 5, 6	5	1

manner, by means of a time record, the methods were ranked on the basis of the amount of time required to compute the results after all the data were at hand. These ranks, together with the average of the two, are exhibited in Table 3.

4. The ten methods were next used to compute the loads of twenty-five teachers in an actual situation, each teacher's load being computed by all ten methods. For the purpose of facilitating comparisons, the results were converted into common units of hours per week, with two significant figures. Limitations of space prohibit the display of the resulting tables, the salient features of which are summarized as follows: (a) Each teacher's load was computed by all ten methods, and the results were expressed in number of hours per week. The range was forty-four hours per week, the lowest being

eleven and the highest fifty-five. The median of all loads computed by the ten methods was 30.5 hours per week. (b) The median of the ten computations of load for each teacher was found. These medians ranged from twenty-six to thirty-nine hours per week. (c) The average load of all twenty-five teachers as computed by each of the ten methods taken individually was found. These averages ranged from twenty-two to forty-five hours per week.

TABLE 3
TEN METHODS OF COMPUTING TEACHER LOAD RANKED
ACCORDING TO AVAILABILITY OF DATA AND
EASE OF COMPUTATION

Method	Rank on Availability of Data	Rank on Ease of Computa- tion	Mean Rank on Ease of Use
1. Middle States Association.....	1	2	1.5
2. Middle States Association.....	1	3	2
3. Almack and Bursch.....	4	5	4.5
4. Brown and Fritzemeier.....	3	9	6
5. Douglass, 1928.....	1	4	2.5
6. Douglass, 1932.....	2	8	5
7. Philadelphia public schools.....	1	1	1
8. Reichard, Koos.....	5	7	6
9. Tritt and Keyes.....	4	6	5
10. Ward.....	2	8	5

5. It was then desired to rank the methods on the basis of how accurately they portrayed the load of a teacher. For this purpose two criteria were selected. The first was a consensus of teacher opinion, which gave fifty hours a week as the time spent in all school duties both in and out of school. The standing of each method, as indicated by a comparison of the average of the twenty-five teachers' loads computed by that method with the fifty-hour per week consensus, is shown in Table 4.

The second criterion of accuracy was based on the median load for one teacher as found from all ten methods. First was found the amount that each teacher's load as computed by one method deviated from the median load of that teacher as computed by all methods. Next was found the mean of these deviations for each method. It was assumed that the method showing the least devi-

ation from the median was the most accurate and that the method showing the most deviation was the least accurate. The ranks of the methods on this basis are also given in Table 4.

6. The next step in the study was to submit a table of the loads of the twenty-five teachers computed by all ten methods to the teachers and the administrators and ask them to arrange the ten methods in the order of their preference with respect to three cri-

TABLE 4

TEN METHODS OF COMPUTING TEACHER LOAD RANKED ACCORDING TO (1) DEGREE OF CORRESPONDENCE WITH TEACHERS' CONSENSUS OF USUAL LOAD OF FIFTY HOURS A WEEK AND (2) AMOUNT OF MEAN DEVIATION FROM MEDIAN COMPUTATION

Method	Rank on Basis of Fifty-Hour Week Consensus	Rank on Basis of Mean Deviation
1. Middle States Association.	10	8
2. Middle States Association.	6	1
3. Almack and Bursch.	5	2
4. Brown and Fritzemeier.	3	6
5. Douglass, 1928.	9	7
6. Douglass, 1932.	8	4
7. Philadelphia public schools.	7	3
8. Reichard, Koos.	2	9
9. Tritt and Keyes.	4	5
10. Ward.	1	10

teria: accuracy of results, understandability of results, and utility of results. The ranks of the methods obtained in this manner are shown in Table 5. The ranks in column 1 include the results shown in Table 4 as well as ranks given by the participating personnel, which are not shown.

7. The next step was to obtain a single rank for each method which would indicate the standing of that method with respect to all the criteria previously mentioned. The specific ranks of each method as found above were combined into a single composite, or "over-all," rank by taking the mean of the individual ranks to one significant figure. These ranks are given in the first column in Table 6.

8. It was deemed advisable at this point to recompute the over-all

ranks of the methods, omitting from consideration the results shown in Table 5—that is, the subjective opinions of the small group of teachers and administrators referred to above—and to use only the objective data at hand. The results obtained in this manner are exhibited in Table 6 in the second column.

This procedure produces two distinct sets of results corresponding,

TABLE 5
TEN METHODS OF COMPUTING TEACHER LOAD RANKED ACCORDING TO
JUDGMENTS OF ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS ON
USABILITY OF RESULTS

Method	Mean Rank on Accuracy of Load Portrayal	Mean Rank on Understandability of Results	Mean Rank on Utility of Results	Combined Rank on Understandability and Utility (Mean of Columns 2 and 3)	Mean Rank on Availability of Data and Ease of Computation (Table 3)	Combined Rank on Accuracy, Understandability, and Utility (Mean of Columns 1, 4, and 5)
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Middle States Association.....	7.7	2.9	4.6	3.8	1.5	4.3
2. Middle States Association.....	5.7	4.9	3.6	4.3	2	4.0
3. Almack and Bursch.....	4.1	4.7	4.9	4.8	4.5	4.5
4. Brown and Fritze-meier.....	3.5	6.1	5.0	5.6	6	5.0
5. Douglass, 1928....	5.0	4.1	5.4	4.8	2.5	4.1
6. Douglass, 1932....	4.4	4.6	5.4	5.0	5	4.8
7. Philadelphia public schools.....	5.1	3.9	3.2	3.6	1	3.2
8. Reichard, Koos....	4.2	3.0	3.5	3.3	6	4.5
9. Tritt and Keyes....	5.2	6.1	6.1	6.1	5	5.4
10. Ward.....	5.2	6.7	6.8	6.8	5	5.7

more or less, to the two definitions of teacher load mentioned at the start. The first set indicates the ranks of the various methods with the emphasis on their values as comparative measures rather than their values as measures of total load. This rank is strongly influenced by the opinions of a small group of administrators, who inject an undesirable element of subjectivity. The second set of results is more objective in nature, since in this computation the opinions of the administration and staff have been omitted. These

ranks are, however, strongly biased in favor of the definition of teacher load as a measure of total teacher load rather than simply a quantitative comparison of loads.

TABLE 6
COMPOSITE RANKS OF TEN METHODS OF COMPUTING
TEACHER LOAD

Method	Rank Based on All Data	Rank Based on Objective Data Only
1. Middle States Association.....	4	6
2. Middle States Association.....	2	4
3. Almack and Bursch.....	5	5
4. Brown and Fritzemeier.....	7	3
5. Douglass, 1928.....	3	6
6. Douglass, 1932.....	6	7
7. Philadelphia public schools.....	1	3
8. Reichard, Koos.....	5	2
9. Tritt and Keyes.....	8	3
10. Ward.....	9	1

CONCLUSIONS

Based on all the data collected, the methods rank as follows in order of desirability:

1. Philadelphia public schools, Method 7
2. Middle States Association (pupil-period), Method 2
3. Douglass, 1928, Method 5
4. Middle States Association (class periods), Method 1
5. { Almack and Bursch, Method 3
Reichard, Koos, Method 8
6. Douglass, 1932, Method 6
7. Brown and Fritzemeier, Method 4
8. Tritt and Keyes, Method 9
9. Ward, Method 10

When data concerned with teacher opinion are excluded and the definition of teacher load as a measure of total load is the criterion, the methods in order of desirability are:

1. Ward, Method 10
2. Reichard, Koos, Method 8
3. { Brown and Fritzemeier, Method 4
Philadelphia public schools, Method 7
Tritt and Keyes, Method 9
4. Middle States Association (pupil-period), Method 2
5. Almack and Bursch, Method 3
6. { Middle States Association (class
periods), Method 1
Douglass, 1928, Method 5
7. Douglass, 1932, Method 6

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REMEDIAL WORK AS AN OPPORTUNITY

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*

TO BEGIN the instruction of each pupil at his own level was the basic objective of the guidance program of the Dover High School. Diagnostic tests helped to discover the needs of each pupil. On the basis of these tests and of observations made by the teachers, an intensive remedial program was offered as an aid in teaching "pupils to do better the desirable things that they are likely to do anyway,"¹ which was the philosophy underlying the new program.

Special work in reading and in other study skills² was given in small, individualized groups in special classes. Pupils were not withdrawn from any classroom or recreational activity, but they used a part of their study-hall time for remedial work. Because of this use of part of the pupils' free time, there were only two possible groupings of difficulties within each scheduled period. Thus pupils with the nearest similar difficulties had specialized work in the first half of the period, and the others had the last half of the period to work on their specific problems. To take all the pupils with identical difficulties at the same time and thus interrupt the regular class work was not necessary because, even though the pupils had the same deficiencies, these deficiencies may not have been caused by the same factors. Therefore the methods and the means of removing identical deficiencies of individual pupils may be too differentiated for group work.

Remedial work to improve study skills was recommended to two groups of pupils: (1) those whose reading age was retarded by at least two years, as revealed in the Progressive Achievement Tests, and

¹ Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, p. 258. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933.

² Remedial reading was only a part of the general reading program of the school. Remedial arithmetic was taught in conference periods by the mathematics teacher. Remedial language was taught by the remedial-reading teacher in a conference period. See Louise Robles, "Make-up Work," *Delaware School Journal*, IV (April, 1939), 14.

(2) those who were not retarded in reading but needed help in some special study technique, as revealed in the regular classroom work. It was hoped to dispel some of the unfortunate associations of a special class by including pupils who had only one or two study techniques to improve. Voluntary attendance also helped to obliterate the stigma of being in a remedial group.

Plans were made for this intensive training to be tied up closely with, and used in, the subject-matter classes. The materials used in the special study skills were selected, as far as possible, from the same topics on which the pupil was working in his regular classes or in which, according to the results of the preliminary tests, he needed special work. After a pupil had sufficiently improved his study skills, he withdrew from the special class. However, the follow-up of his work in his regular classes continued.

This plan necessitated continuous diagnosis and treatment of study habits as an integral part of the classroom teaching activities. For example, if a pupil who had poor habits of note-taking and who needed specific instruction in this particular technique was assigned by the classroom teacher to take part in a debate, the pupil was sent to the special study-skills class, and the results of his work there were used in the class in which the assignment was made. If a group needed this specific instruction and if the program permitted, the classroom teacher developed the necessary skill as a normal part of class work. However, if more pressing problems needed the attention of the classroom teacher, the group was assigned to the special study-skills room for help.

The class was introduced to the pupils as an opportunity to improve their methods of work. During the first week each pupil, in conference with the teacher, analyzed his tests. One purpose of the interview was to impress on the pupil not only the possibility that his ineffectual reading skills hindered his school progress but also the idea that he was capable of improving his skills. Careful questioning analyzed the reasons for each error, and the results were tabulated for use in planning individual courses. The general plan was that reported by Strang.¹

¹ Ruth Strang, "Interview with a Student Having Reading Difficulties," *English Journal*, XXV (June, 1936), 452-60.

The second week was devoted to the selection of reading material. Group charts of the pupils' interests, as shown in inventories made from a questionnaire which was adapted from the Witty-Kopel Diagnostic Child Study Record developed at the Psycho-educational Clinic of Northwestern University, were discussed with the pupils on the first day of the second week and served as a basis for this selection. On the second and the third days short stories were assigned according to interest and reading levels. If no dominant line of interest had appeared in the study or in the conference, the pupil was given an *Elson Basic Reader*¹ and told to study the Table of Contents and to select a topic in which he was interested. The fourth day was used to become acquainted with *My Weekly Reader* before an article was selected to be read. The pupils browsed about and became familiar with the arrangement and the variety of reading materials. Some of the pupils made suggestions for other exhibits of reading materials on special interests.

Because one of the educational viewpoints of the remedial teacher is to begin the instruction of the pupil where he is in achievement as well as in interest, on the first day of the third week each pupil was led to refer to his standard test and to select the skill which he most needed to develop. He then used the name of this skill on his assignment sheet as the "Purpose of Reading" for each ensuing lesson until he had mastered the skill. The fact that each pupil understood thoroughly the purpose of his assignments was one of the main reasons why 140 of the 144 selected pupils voluntarily accepted this additional work two or three times a week.

During the third week a simple routine, by which each pupil began his assignment without waiting for the whole group to assemble, made possible a more advantageous use of the short period available for the remedial lesson. According to this plan, each pupil took his folder from the files, secured the material necessary for his assignment, completed, checked, and evaluated his work before he recorded his progress. He was then ready to plan with the teacher for his next assignment.

The records of each pupil were kept in an individual folder. The

¹ William H. Elson, Lura E. Runkel, and William S. Gray, *The Elson Basic Readers*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1930.

assignment record showed the date, the purpose of work, the amount of work done, the progress made, the evaluation of progress, and the work to be done next. Although attendance was voluntary, a record was kept of each day's work, and absences were noted for the purpose of showing the reason for incomplete work. Each pupil kept a record, in the form of a bar graph, of his progress on standard tests. A copy of the descriptive report to the parents, explaining the progress or the needs of the pupil in every subject, was also kept in his folder.

In general the plan of procedure for the remainder of the term was (1) to use *My Weekly Reader* once a week for speed drills, followed by discussions of what was read; (2) to read short stories; and (3) to use teacher-prepared materials and parts of workbooks according to the needs and the interests of the individuals.

Speed drills were based on *My Weekly Reader* because it provides easy reading of current events. A short test on comprehension of the article prevented pupils from reading too rapidly. A graph recorded progress in speed and comprehension for each pupil.

Exercises to overcome a pupil's specific difficulties were based on short stories and articles. For example, if he did not know how to select the main idea of a paragraph, he chose any story he wished and selected the main idea in each paragraph. His written work was carefully checked as a basis for further instruction. Had he needed drill in noting details, he would have answered detailed questions on the same story.

The teacher-prepared materials consisted of original selections or of paragraphs, sentences, and graphs which had been cut from newspapers, old books, and pamphlets, and mounted on oak tag with directions for use.

Original devices formed a vital part of the instructional materials. These were mounted on oak tag or were duplicated on a machine. In the teaching of organization of ideas, beginning pupils were given individually mounted paragraphs from which they selected the main thought or justified the inclusion of a specific paragraph in a story. They were sometimes asked to arrange these paragraphs in a given order or to match the paragraphs with their titles. At other times they were given only titles, headings, and subheadings to match.

The more advanced pupils were given short articles for practice. From these they might select the main thought of certain paragraphs, compare the content of other paragraphs for similarity or difference, or develop simple outlines. Later they read the selection to discover the author's purpose.

To develop skill in locating information, the pupils first learned to use intelligently the indexes in their classroom textbooks. This practice led naturally into the problem of selecting the correct reference material. For the first lesson in skimming, textbooks in geography were used. The more advanced pupils were asked to find information on a certain topic in a newspaper or to find the time, place, and price of admission of a given entertainment.

To enlarge their vocabularies, the pupils recorded each new word in their notebooks. This record showed the word in its context, the dictionary meaning, and the pupils' own uses of the word. These vocabulary notebooks were a part of the "Word Drive" which was one of the activities that extended throughout the elementary and high schools in all subjects.

Often not words only but complete ideas were unfamiliar to the pupils. Hence explanation of material usually taught in subject-matter courses was necessitated in order to overcome reading difficulties. This deficiency was especially apparent in the results of the Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills in which pupils' lack of knowledge of geographic principles was responsible for their inability to comprehend maps, charts, and graphs. Matching words with their meanings, fitting words into sentences, or finding synonyms for the underscored words in sentences tested the pupils' understanding of new words. Underscoring words which were used in a story to show a particular activity checked the comprehension of words.

The tachistoscope was a popular device to improve word recognition. A variation was a card with a rectangular opening which showed single words on the printed page.

At the end of the testing period the results showed higher ratings on standard achievement tests, fewer failures, a more active interest in voluntary reading, and an application of the skills learned in the remedial class to regular classroom work. Pupils and parents as well as teachers shared in this evaluation of the remedial program.

SOCIALIST SECONDARY EDUCATION IN MEXICO

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*

THE secondary school in Mexico, like every other level of the socialist school system, must justify its goals, its curriculum, its activities, and its very existence, for that matter, in the light of Article 3 of the Constitution as revised and adopted October 10, 1933. It is well to keep this article in mind while various activities of the schools are examined, for it is the answer to the inevitable question, "Why do they do that in the schools?" The first paragraph of the famous article says:

The education imparted by the state shall be a socialistic one and, in addition to excluding all religious doctrine, shall combat fanaticism and prejudices by organizing its instruction and activities in a way that shall permit the creation in youth of an exact and rational concept of the universe and of social life.

This manifesto might, and usually does, lead to the belief that the Mexican school is a place of fiery oratory and shouted *viva's*, where the pupils are primed to go out and tear something down. Only after much visiting and inspection does an investigator assure himself that the tone of the schools is similar to that anywhere else. He is then ready to look for the truly unique things that characterize the Mexican socialist schools.

Many of the objectives that the Mexicans have set themselves are those which education in the United States achieved many years ago. Others are different from our goals, and these will need to be presented clearly in fairness to our neighbor's system.

Education in Mexico is primarily a social instrumentation, used at the direction of the state to work toward a new order. Since 1921 the government has been frantically building primary schools in an effort to get all children into schools of some kind so that a start can be made toward national betterment. The thousands of federal rural schools, giving but three years of instruction, have already

cut in half the 90 per cent of illiteracy existing at the time of Díaz. The urban elementary school provides six years of education, most of which is concerned with teaching the children to live more hygienically, healthfully, and morally. In short, the school tries to "permit the creation in youth of an exact and rational concept of the universe and of social life."

FOUNDATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The secondary school extends socialistic education three years upward from the sixth year of the primary school. It is a unique, Mexican type of school which has been organized since the Revolution. In 1868 the *escuela preparatoria* was organized in Mexico, based on European and North American patterns. During the year of its inception 568 students were enrolled—a select, aristocratic group preparing solely for university entrance. The fact that ten years later there were but 880 students in this branch of education shows that it was not designed to meet the demands for popular education. By presidential decrees of August 29 and December 22, 1925, the federal secondary school was established. A little more than a year later 6,563 adolescents were enrolled in this branch of education. At first an enrolment fee was charged, but in 1935 the secondary school was made free. In that year 11,640 Mexican children of both sexes attended. Of this number 76.70 per cent belonged to the working class, 19.86 per cent to the middle class, and 3.44 per cent to the aristocracy.¹

Realizing that but a small percentage of the pupils in the secondary school will enter the university, the educational leaders have constructed a curriculum of immediate social and practical value. It continues the methods and the techniques of the elementary school and attempts to deepen the consciousness of the country's social needs. An essential part of the secondary program is the pre-vocational work given in all the schools. Shops are established where training is given in carpentry, metal-working, leather-work, printing, domestic science, and many other practical arts. The purpose of this work is twofold: to help the pupil choose the type of occupa-

¹ Juan B. Salazar, *Bases of the Socialist Secondary School*, p. 14. Mexico, D.F.: Talleres Gráficos de la Nación, 1936.

tion for which he is fitted and which interests him and to give training that will enable him to better himself vocationally.

The socialistic secondary school, as the prevocational institution of Mexican society, is the kind of institution which offers real possibilities for human improvement. It is the laboratory school meant to bring forth new generations, as well as the educational establishment of modern times; an institution wherein the destinies of a better Mexico will be modeled; (not a foreign colonial Mexico or industrial protectorate) but a country the natural products of which, its lands, oil, industries, and woods, may be directly exploited for the benefit of the laboring classes, actually working such fields of production.¹

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SOCIALIST SECONDARY SCHOOL

The primary characteristic of the secondary school in Mexico is socialization. Every effort is made to give the pupil a sense of the part that he plays in human society. He is told that he has certain rights, such as the right to health, to the share of Mexico's natural wealth which he exploits, to all the world's knowledge that he can assimilate, and to a happy family life. The pupil is not instructed in his own rights alone, for it is believed that such a program might lead to selfishness. In addition, he is taught to work with individuals and groups and to respect in them the same rights that he demands. Frequently one encounters the motto in Mexico, "Exploit the wealth of the earth, but not your fellow-man on it."

The secondary school is democratic. While Mexico has been, ostensibly, a republic since 1821, there was hardly a single vestige of democracy before the Revolution of 1910. The country was run by and for a small clique of whites who called themselves *gente decente*, or genteel folk; the rest of the people were peons or *pelados* (literally ones who had been plucked). Education was, practically, in the hands of the church, and only children of the aristocracy were considered for formal education. The pure Indian was hardly considered a human being since the church had declared him to be without a soul and therefore not subject to the Inquisition during Colonial days. Today secondary schools welcome all classes equally—the wealthy, the poor, the Indian, the *mestizo* (mixed breed), and the white. Instruction is also highly democratized, the teacher working in friendly co-operation with his pupils.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

The Mexican secondary school, say its leaders, builds human character and educates for citizenship. Morality is one of the key-notes of the modern school in Mexico. Campaigns are carried on against drinking, gambling, and all other phases of immorality. Mexico has been a host to all the groups of social parasites that have existed, unchecked, since the coming of the Spaniards. Mexican education is not atheistic nor antireligious; it is simply opposed to fanaticism and superstition. Its chief tenet is love of one's fellow-man. Pupils are taken on trips to see the homes of the poorest classes; they visit the factories and workshops and see conditions under which the people work. They are then impressed with a personal responsibility for the future betterment of these unfortunates.

The secondary school gives practical instruction. There is a close kinship here with the progressive or activity school in the United States. As a matter of fact, the Mexican schools were directly under the influence of John Dewey and in 1923 were known as *escuelas de acción*. The fundamental difference between the present-day school and the activity school is one of direction or social effectiveness of the activity. It is not enough that pupils keep busy on projects or work with their hands; they must work on a task that has a useful end. Thus the pupils may work on a home for a family that has none; they may build a library for the school; or they may carry on a campaign in the town against *pulque*, the national drink of Mexico. In the course of this work the pupils apply their knowledge. They are not interested in so-called "pure science"; their interest lies in applied science which can help the farmer, the mother, or any other citizen work with nature rather than against it. For the same reason art education must have a social objective. Pupils are encouraged to draw what they feel—if it expresses a social lesson.

Secondary education is selective. In other words, the leaders of future Mexico will come from the graduates of the secondary school. The nation looks to the schools to graduate a selective type of person, one who is technically trained and grounded in social theory but who is, as well, socialized and unselfish and who will truly work for the ultimate good of his country.

Co-operation is another characteristic emphasized in the Mexican secondary school. Every pupil is required to belong to one of the

school co-operatives. A co-operatively owned store in the school furnishes books, paper, and special equipment. Some of the schools have co-operative gardens or farms, where they raise and sell vegetables. The farmers do not look on these co-operative farms as competitors, for the pupils help the farmers and add to their knowledge in many ways. For instance, they learn food values in their science classes and introduce nutritional foods into the diet of the people. The Mexican is traditionally conditioned to corn, squash, and beans. It is, therefore, a distinct contribution to add variety to his diet. Frequently the school co-operative buys a high-grade animal, which is used by the farmers for breeding, the strain in the countryside being thus improved. The curriculum adds to the spread of co-operation, for nearly all work is a group affair and there is little individual striving for competitive marks.

All in all, the Mexican secondary school tries to be what it claims for itself, conspicuously social. The school is definitely a part of life. It takes the lead in the artistic, aesthetic, moral, economic, and social aspects of the community life. It hopes to prepare an integrated individual for adult society, not by teaching him in academic classes about the organization of society, but by guiding him in taking a living part in affairs about him. The social side of life is not being neglected, for the department of education has collected folk dances and music from all parts of the republic, which are being given a prominent place in the schools. The place of athletics becomes more pronounced every day. Basketball and baseball are drawing thousands of participants and spectators every year in Mexico. The school is a direct competitor with the drinking places, the *cantina* and the *pulquería*, and it appears to be an aggressive contender.

ORGANIZATION AND GROWTH OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

One of the most noticeable features of the schools of Mexico, particularly of the secondary school, is the amount of work done by the pupils and the teachers. It appears that they are trying to make up for the centuries of neglect in as short a time as possible. For instance, the curriculum of the first year of the secondary school

demands thirty-two hours each week, and the second and the third years require thirty-six hours a week. The program for the third year will serve as a sample of the instruction. Four hours a week are devoted to Spanish, with chief emphasis on Spanish-American literature; three hours to foreign languages, either English or French; two hours to civics, where consideration is given to the economic problems of the Mexican people, revolutionary law, and agrarian and labor legislation; three hours to economic and social geography; three hours to universal history, considered from a materialistic standpoint; three hours to biology, in which primary consideration is given to microbiology and human hygiene; and three hours each to mathematics and chemistry. At the same time the student is doing manual work of the following nature: drawing, modeling, wood-carving, and making plaster figures, two hours a week; music, one hour; physical culture, three hours; and laboratory experiments in chemistry and anatomy, two hours. Every child spends four hours each week in the workshops. In addition to this stint, the pupils form co-operatives, including a farm-productive co-operative and a store, for the use and education of the school. They have committees for social aid and betterment of the community and for the spread of socialist ideology. Frequently trips are made to factories, slums, and points of archeological interest.

The growth of the secondary school has been slow and will continue to be retarded for many years. There are several reasons for this slow growth. First of all, since there is not sufficient money to finish the work of establishing both elementary and secondary schools, the primary schools come first. Second, there will not be a tremendous demand for secondary education for a number of years because a high percentage of the pupils in the primary grades are leaving school after one year to help out the family. As economic pressure on the head of the family is lessened, children will be able to stay in school longer. Later, when the graduates from the six-year elementary schools become more and more numerous, the government will have to meet a continuous demand for secondary schools. The third reason for the slow expansion of the secondary school is the lack of teachers. While the primary-school teacher

may be, and often is, barely able to read and write, it is obvious that the secondary-school teacher must be better grounded in pedagogy, subject matter, and socialist ideology.

There are today approximately 110 public secondary schools in Mexico. There are also many private and Protestant secondary and preparatory schools. In some places there are volunteer secondary schools, staffed by teachers who daily donate an hour or two from other occupations. I visited such a school in Pátzcuaro, Michoacán, where almost a hundred youths are participating in secondary education, thanks to the public spirit of a group of educated citizens. An engineering student, staying out of the university for a year to work, teaches engineering drawing and mathematics; an Englishwoman living in the town teaches English; and in like manner the rest of the faculty is chosen. Classes are held in part of the elementary-school plant in the day and evening, classes being given at the hour which the teacher can take off from his regular work. It is from beginnings such as these that Mexico hopes to build toward the day when there will be free, obligatory secondary education over all the nation.

EVALUATION OF MEXICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

From the foregoing the progress of secondary education in Mexico sounds like the advance of a crusade. In many cases it is a crusade; yet in many instances the secondary school is a poor imitation of the country high school in the United States. The observer must always remember, however, when he sees a secondary school in Nogales, Sonora, or in Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua (border towns), that these schools were set up to check the flow of pupils across the border into American high schools. I have stood at the customs gate in various ports of entry and seen Mexican boys and girls hurrying to or from school on the American side. Much can be said for this custom, viewed in the light of international good will or understanding. Viewed in the light of the socialist program, it is a step in the wrong direction. As a consequence of this competition, the secondary schools near the border have attempted to make themselves as nearly like the schools across the line as possible. Sometimes they have succeeded, as in Tecate, Baja California, where an American

immigration inspector once told me that he sent his son to the Mexican school because he considered it superior to the school a few blocks away on the American side of the line.

To see the leaven really at work, one should visit one of the secondary schools in the Federal District around Mexico City. Here one finds a spirit that is seldom seen in education. Every teacher is inspired, and the pupils reflect the new education in their attitude and work. Secondary Schools 1 and 5 are housed in old convents. The dignity and the beauty of the old structures have been combined with the new doctrine of fresh air and sunlight. Other secondary schools have been designed and built especially to house the socialist program. The Central School of the Revolution has attracted much attention, both for its curriculum and for its ultra-modern construction.¹ The opposite extreme of this spirit is found in Sonora. The state, claiming thirty-six thousand secondary-school pupils, has a fairly strong program of its own. The secretary of education and various other officials of the department told me not only that they were out of sympathy with the federal program but that they were doing all possible to check the spread of socialist education. In contrast with the schools of the Federal District, the state schools are traditional and undistinguished in their pedagogy.

One can see that, like all movements, Mexico's system is not a movement that has the unqualified support of all. There are strong supporters; there are obstructionists; and there are lukewarm followers. However, it is obvious that secondary schools are springing up where there has never been any kind of education before. Therefore, whether or not the student of education agrees with all the points in Mexico's program, he must give her credit for *doing something*.

¹ For an excellent portrayal of this school see: "The New Architecture in Mexico," *Architectural Record*, LXXXI (April, 1937), 1-86.

STANDARDIZED ACHIEVEMENT MEASUREMENTS OF ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES

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IN AN earlier issue of this journal one of the present writers¹ reviewed his statements in a still earlier issue to the effect that most comparisons of the scholastic success of high-school athletes and non-athletes were based on teachers' marks and consequently were of questionable value, and he then added:

In this day of the common use of tests, one might think that it would be easy to obtain standardized-test data bearing on the problem, but it is not easy. Few high schools give standardized tests in numbers large enough to be serviceable, and other agencies which administer tests have no records showing which boys are athletes. Thus far no investigator interested primarily in comparing athletes with non-athletes has cared to go to the expense and effort of using standardized tests widely.

The unreliability of teachers' marks and their relative worthlessness as statistical measures in the comparison of any two pupil groups are matters of common knowledge. In a comparison involving athletes the use of teachers' marks is particularly treacherous. A teacher out of sympathy with athletics may, consciously or unconsciously, let his attitude affect pupils' standings unfavorably. On the other hand, marks may be raised to allow some valuable player to remain eligible, especially when the school and town spirit demands victory at any price. The need, therefore, for standardized-test data in comparing athletes and non-athletes is obvious. The present article reports a survey made strictly for the purpose of comparing athletes and non-athletes objectively and impartially.

Greene County, Indiana, was chosen for the survey. Greene

¹ J. R. Shannon, "Scores in English of High-School Athletes and Non-athletes," *School Review*, XLVI (February, 1938), 128-30.

County is one of the foremost athletics counties of basketball-ridden Indiana. Each of its twelve high schools has a basketball team each year; and, since many of these teams have had more than average success, a strong, favorable feeling for athletics in Greene County is traditional. Furthermore, Greene is one of Indiana's few good football counties. Football has been played for years in four of the high schools, more schools than any other Indiana county which has no large city; and numerous Big Ten or all-American stars are graduates of one or another of these four high schools. Elmer Oliphant, Andrew Gill, Charles Bennett, John Burns, Russell Hathaway, and Spencer Pope, for example, are among the football notables whom these high schools have produced. With visions of such stars as these, practically every boy in the county has a strong desire to succeed in athletics.

Only eleventh- and twelfth-grade boys were included in the survey. Using only the upperclassmen afforded a better classification of athletes and non-athletes, since all boys had had at least three years to qualify as athletes. In this survey boys were counted as athletes only if they had been awarded letters. Furthermore, boys in the last two years of high school could be tested more fairly in the core subjects of English, social studies, mathematics, and science included in the standardized-achievement test used in the survey. The number of boys thus included was 322, 116 of whom were athletes and 206 non-athletes.

The tests used in the survey were the Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability, Higher Examination, Form D, and the Myers-Ruch High School Progress Test, Form A. The tests were given early in 1938. The most significant data of the survey are shown in Table 1. The differences between the means in the measures of both mental ability and high-school progress being as slight as they are and the critical ratios being small (0.407 for the mental-ability scores and 0.417 for the achievement-test scores), it is clear that neither the athletes nor the non-athletes can be said to be superior to the other group in either intelligence or achievement.

Further evidence that the athletes and the non-athletes were practically equal in mentality and in achievement is shown by the correlations between intelligence and achievement, which were as high

for these groups as such correlations are usually found to be, or even higher. The coefficients of correlation for the athletes and the non-athletes were $.81 \pm .023$ and $.68 \pm .026$, respectively.

Since Greene County is a prominent athletics county and since the boys of the upper two years of high school were surveyed by

TABLE 1
SCORES ON STANDARDIZED TESTS OF MENTAL ABILITY
AND ACHIEVEMENT MADE BY 116 ATHLETES
AND 206 NON-ATHLETES

Group	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Mental-ability score:		
Athletes.....	$38.65 \pm .695$	$11.10 \pm .491$
Non-athletes.....	$39.00 \pm .508$	$10.80 \pm .359$
Difference.....	$0.35 \pm .86$
Achievement-test score:		
Athletes.....	$54.25 \pm .852$	$13.60 \pm .602$
Non-athletes.....	$54.70 \pm .670$	$14.25 \pm .474$
Difference.....	0.45 ± 1.08

means of reputable standardized tests for the sole purpose of comparing athletes and non-athletes, this investigation offers a particularly valuable comparison in the much mooted field of athletics and scholarship. That the differences in both general intelligence and high-school progress between the athletes and the non-athletes were insignificant should be gratifying to those friends of athletics who would like to proceed to consider the merits of athletics on less subject-centered grounds.

READING INTERESTS OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

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IN RECENT years increasing attention has been focused on the need of exploring the reading interests of high-school pupils. Several factors have contributed to the recognition of this need. One of these is the growing trend toward extensive reading in all areas of secondary-school work. As long as instruction is based on a single textbook, pupils' interests are inadequately disclosed. However, when pupils are given greater freedom in the selection of reading materials, an understanding of their interests is of major importance if effective direction is to be provided. A second factor is the growing recognition of the school's responsibility for training pupils in the wise use of leisure time. Investigations of the leisure activities of pupils show that a significant portion of their time is spent in reading. The materials read voluntarily by many pupils are unsatisfactory both in quality and in quantity. Attempts to improve habits and tastes by requiring pupils to read certain classics have been notoriously unsuccessful. Consequently it is becoming clear that efforts to improve the quality of leisure-time reading must be based on a thorough understanding of pupils' interests. A third factor which has been influential in arousing a consciousness of the need of exploring the reading interests of high-school pupils grows out of current attempts to provide effective remedial instruction in reading. Recent studies have shown that many high-school pupils are seriously hindered in their school work because of low reading ability. These pupils generally read meagerly, and they frequently possess an aggressive dislike for reading. The development of favorable attitudes toward reading and the improvement of ability therein necessitate a clear understanding of the types of reading materials that have the greatest appeal to pupils.

The intelligent direction of the reading interests of high-school pupils involves such questions as the following: (1) What types of

books do pupils turn to voluntarily? (2) What magazines and what sections of magazines have the greatest appeal for high-school pupils? (3) How much time do pupils spend in reading a daily paper, and in what parts of the paper are they most interested? (4) What changes, if any, take place in pupils' reading interests during the four-year high-school period? In an effort to secure information on these questions, a survey of the reading interests of 1,532 pupils in several high schools in Chicago was recently conducted as a part of a larger survey of the general interests and activities of high-school pupils. Four hundred and eighty-seven of these pupils were in Grade IX, 541 in Grade X, 294 in Grade XI, and 210 in Grade XII. This article presents the most important findings of this survey with reference to high-school pupils' interests in books.

TYPES OF BOOKS WHICH INTEREST PUPILS

Ninety per cent of the pupils included in this survey indicated that they read books for pleasure. This percentage was approximately the same for each high-school grade.

As is indicated in Table 1, books dealing with adventure are ranked¹ first by all classes. The greatest change in rank is noticed in biography, which rises from twelfth place in the Freshman year to second place in the Senior year. Interest in books about sports also increases during the high-school period, rising from eighth place in the first two years to fourth and third places, respectively, during the last two years. Although books dealing with personal appearance, etiquette, and homemaking do not appeal strongly to pupils at any grade level, there is evidence of increasing interest in these subjects as pupils become more mature. Types of books which seem to lose appeal are mystery stories, humor, and drama. Romance ranks comparatively high in all grades. Books of poetry, art, music, and religion do not appear to interest pupils greatly (Seniors rank them even lower than do Freshmen). The upper classes show no tendency to give higher ranks to books concerning history and

¹ Pupils were asked to rank nineteen types of books in accordance with the degree of interest that the books held for them. In the computation of the final rankings, values were assigned to each rank; that is, Rank 1 was assigned a value of 19, Rank 2 a value of 18, and so on. The type of books with the highest number of points was given a final rank of 1; the type with the second highest number, a final rank of 2; and so on.

politics. Freshmen show somewhat less interest in science and travel, but the differences in rankings are not great. The following comparison of the types of books which are given the five highest

TABLE 1
TYPES OF BOOKS RANKED ACCORDING TO INTEREST BY
1,532 PUPILS IN FOUR HIGH-SCHOOL GRADES

Types of Books	Grade IX	Grade X	Grade XI	Grade XII
Adventure	1	1	1	1
Mystery	2	2	3	7
Drama	3	6	10	11
Humor	4	3	2	9
Romance	5	5	6	6
Science	6	4	5	4
Travel	7	7	7	5
Sports	8	8	4	3
Aviation	9	9	9	8
Religion	10	11	12	12
Music	11	13	13	13
Biography	12	10	8	2
Personal appearance	13	12	11	10
Poetry	14	16	19	19
Art	15	14	17	17
History	16	15	15	15
Politics	17	18	18	18
Etiquette	18	17	14	14
Homemaking	19	19	16	16

rankings by each class indicates that there is a definite increase in interest in nonfiction during the high-school period.

<i>Grade IX</i>	<i>Grade X</i>	<i>Grade XI</i>	<i>Grade XII</i>
Adventure	Adventure	Adventure	Adventure
Mystery	Mystery	Humor	Biography
Drama	Humor	Mystery	Sports
Humor	Science	Sports	Science
Romance	Romance	Science	Travel

Several related investigations have recently been made which show comparable findings. Center and Persons (2) studied the reading interests of forty-six thousand pupils in nine representative high schools in New York City. They found that by far the largest percentage of books reported were fiction (69.5 per cent). However, among first-term pupils fiction constituted 91.77 per cent of the reading, while among eighth-term pupils it dropped to 64.35 per cent. Their study also indicates that interest in biography increases

during the high-school period. The greatest amount of science was read in the fifth term, of poetry in the seventh term, and of plays in the eighth term. The fact that the percentages were based on the supervised reading of pupils may account for the variations of these findings from those in this study.

Byrns and Henmon (1) have reported data taken from the entrance blanks of 1,980 Freshmen at the University of Wisconsin. Applicants for admission were asked to list the titles of as many books as they could recall having read during the preceding year, outside of school requirements. The study therefore canvasses the reading interests of Senior high-school pupils. The girls listed a larger percentage of novels of high quality than did the boys. Boys had read somewhat larger percentages of books of travel and adventure, detective and mystery stories, biography and history, science and philosophy, and technical books. Rothney and McCaul's study (9) of the reading preferences of 306 eleventh-grade boys disclosed that these pupils were most interested in books concerning sports, the sea, mystery, adventure, and vocational subjects. A study of the reading interests of 1,387 junior high school pupils was made by Malchow (7). Adventure books ranked high for both sexes. Girls were especially interested in mystery stories, and boys in books about animals. McCullough (6) attempted to discover what elements in books most appealed to ninth-grade pupils. She found that they liked best stories about boys and girls, then stories about adults, and then stories about animals (mostly dogs). The interest factors most frequently mentioned were adventure, heroism, hardship, fighting, mystery, cleverness, love, and daily life.

BOOKS READ MOST FREQUENTLY BY HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

During the last two weeks of November, 1938, the writer asked the pupils who were included in this study to give the names of any books that they had read during the summer or since school began. The total number of books listed was 4,612; of these, 2,889 were different titles. The number of books listed by individual pupils ranged from 0 to 22, the average being 3. Since this information is based entirely on pupils' responses, it is probably not complete. Pupils may have forgotten the titles of books read or may have neglected to list all of them. No attempt was made to have pupils

rate the books for interest. Consequently the books most frequently read may not have been those most enjoyed. A book may have been remembered merely because of its lack of interest, or its apparent

TABLE 2

BOOKS READ BY FIFTEEN OR MORE PUPILS AND NUMBER OF
PUPILS IN GRADES IX-XII REPORTING EACH TITLE

Title of Book	Grade IX	Grade X	Grade XI	Grade XII	Total
Call of the Wild.....	27	23	3	3	56
Little Women.....	22	15	4	1	42
Anthony Adverse.....	3	12	11	14	40
White Fang.....	21	12	3	3	39
Gone with the Wind.....	7	6	18	7	38
Tale of Two Cities.....	14	13	3	2	32
Little Men.....	21	9	1	31
Captain Blood.....	7	15	5	4	31
David Copperfield.....	23	6	2	31
Adventures of Tom Sawyer.....	22	3	2	1	28
Seventeen.....	4	17	4	2	27
Ramona.....	6	14	2	5	27
Count of Monte Cristo.....	8	8	4	5	25
Girl of the Limberlost.....	15	9	1	25
Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come.....	15	8	1	24
Three Musketeers.....	4	8	8	4	24
Twenty Thousand Leagues under the Sea.....	14	4	4	2	24
Microbe Hunters.....	1	10	2	9	22
Trail of the Lonesome Pine.....	2	14	2	4	22
Hoosier School-Master.....	2	15	2	1	20
Monsieur Beaucaire.....	1	15	1	3	20
Treasure Island.....	17	2	1	20
One Hundred Million Guinea Pigs.....	2	6	5	6	19
Nancy Drew mystery stories.....	12	6	18
Patient in the Room.....	18	18
Riders of the Purple Sage.....	3	7	4	4	18
Pride and Prejudice.....	2	4	2	8	16
Silas Marner.....	3	9	3	15
So Big.....	1	2	3	9	15
"We".....	7	2	1	5	15
Alice Adams.....	2	6	7	15

popularity may be due to the fact that it was prescribed reading for some school subject. Thirty-one different books were read by 15 or more pupils; 32 books, by from 10 to 14 pupils; 97 books, by from 5 to 9 pupils; 1,291 books, by from 2 to 4 pupils; and 1,438 books were read by but one pupil each. Titles of books which were read by 15 or more pupils are given in Table 2.

The data here presented indicate that but a partial picture of the reading interests of high-school pupils is given when totals alone are considered. Types of books read by pupils of different classes vary greatly. For example, this list of thirty-one books, each of which was read by fifteen or more pupils, does not even contain the titles of four books which were ranked by Seniors among the first ten, namely, *Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*, *Magnificent Obsession*, *Good Earth*, and *Vanity Fair*. The following lists of the ten books read most frequently by Freshmen and by Seniors contain no duplications.

Grade IX

Call of the Wild
David Copperfield
Adventures of Tom Sawyer
Little Women
Little Men
White Fang
Treasure Island
Girl of the Limberlost
Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come
Twenty Thousand Leagues under the Sea

Grade XII

Anthony Adverse
Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde
So Big
Magnificent Obsession
Microbe Hunters
Vanity Fair
Gone with the Wind
Pride and Prejudice
Good Earth
One Hundred Million Guinea Pigs

With the exception of a few classics, which were undoubtedly prescribed reading, the list of books most frequently read by Seniors is made up largely of the best sellers of the year. On the other hand, the Freshman list is composed of juvenile books, many of which were favorites a generation ago. The necessity of considering changes in pupils' interests becomes even more apparent when analysis is made of the total list of book titles submitted by each class. For example, Freshmen (especially girls) still read series books, such as the "Nancy Drew" mystery stories, the "Judy Bolton" mystery stories, and the "Outdoor Girls" series. The lower grades show much greater interest in mystery stories. Twenty-one titles definitely indicated that the book contained a mystery, as *Mysterious Island* and the *Mystery of the Hidden Room*. These twenty-one books were read by twenty-two Freshmen, eleven Sophomores, three Juniors, and no Seniors. Upperclassmen listed a far greater number of books which were informational in content rather than recre-

ational, some of which were: *Photography*, *Photolithography*, *How To Play Tennis*, *How To Live on Twenty-four Hours a Day*, and *Great Men of Science*. Interest in economics and politics is shown by such books as *Sweden—the Middle Way*, *Inside Europe*, *Economy of Abundance*, and *Causes of Industrial Unrest*, all of which were read exclusively by Seniors.

Other studies of the books most frequently read by high-school pupils give similar data. For example, the favorite books of the forty-six thousand New York City pupils who were surveyed by Center and Persons (2) were, in order of frequency:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Call of the Wild | 6. Three Musketeers |
| 2. Adventures of Tom Sawyer | 7. Count of Monte Cristo |
| 3. Alice Adams | 8. Adventures of Huckleberry Finn |
| 4. David Copperfield | 9. Good Earth |
| 5. Seventeen | 10. Adventures of Sherlock Holmes |

It will be noted that the first seven of these books appear also on the writer's list of books most frequently read by Chicago high-school pupils. Jordan (3) compared several studies of reading interests which have been made since 1919. He concludes that "slight changes in fundamental interests . . . have occurred in books read during the last fifteen years." His conclusion is based on the fact that the favorite authors and the favorite books of pupils were about the same in 1918, 1925, 1929, and 1932. Another comparison of the books read by pupils of the present generation with those of the past generation was made by Ridout (8), who commented on the fact that such books as *Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, *Robinson Crusoe*, *Little Women*, and *Call of the Wild* are still held in high regard by pupils. He found an increase in interest in biography (*Microbe Hunters*, *An American Doctor's Odyssey*, *Up the Years from Bloomsbury*), in travel books (*Around the World in Eighteen Days*, *Flying Carpet*, *North to the Orient*), and in books which adults are reading (*Gone with the Wind*, *Good-bye Mr. Chips*, *Drums along the Mohawk*). Ridout also found a decrease in interest in series books, especially those like the Alger books for boys. Kiger (4) surveyed the interests of approximately one hundred high-school pupils in a list of selected classics. He found that boys liked *Julius Caesar*, *Treasure Island*, *Gold Bug*, and *Rime of the Ancient Mariner*.

Girls preferred *As You Like It* and *Lady of the Lake*. *Silas Marner* and *Tale of Two Cities* were liked by all, while *Ambitious Guest* and *Fall of the House of Usher* were universally disliked.

Few attempts have been made to judge the quality of the books which are read by high-school pupils. Schoonover (10) studied the voluntary reading interests of fifty-six pupils from data obtained from their cumulative reading records from Grade VII through Grade XII. The quality of the books read was judged by appearance or nonappearance on three "approved" reading lists. Schoonover found that 53 per cent of the books (73 per cent of the pupils' reading) were listed books; 47 per cent (27 per cent of the pupils' reading) were unlisted. The average pupil read 238 books during the six-year period, of which 176 were listed. Those who read more widely read a larger number both of listed and of unlisted books. LaBrant (5) studied the three-year reading records of fifty-nine pupils and concluded: "The theory that in a free or extensive reading program designed to utilize interest and to serve individual needs there will be fruitless reading of light fiction gains no evidence from this study." Her conclusion is based on the fact that pupils read many classics and showed increasing interest in drama, science, and biography.

GUIDING PUPILS IN THE SELECTION OF BOOKS

That many pupils are given little or no guidance in the selection of books for recreational reading is indicated by answers to the question, "Does anyone help you discover books which you might be interested to read?" Fifty-eight per cent of the pupils answered "yes" to this question; 42 per cent, "no." Eighty-four per cent stated that they preferred to read at home; 4 per cent preferred to read at school; 8 per cent preferred a library; and 4 per cent did not answer. Books were obtained from school libraries, branch city libraries, rental libraries, and book clubs. The percentages of pupils who indicated that they obtained books from rental libraries increased from 14 in the Freshman year to 35.2 in the Senior year.

SUMMARY

This investigation of the reading interests of high-school pupils and the related studies show that a large number of books of many

types and of varying quality are read. Some pupils read extensively, others but meagerly. Reading interests change during the four-year high-school period, Seniors evidencing more interest in nonfiction than Freshmen. Sex differences also become apparent, since boys show more interest than do girls in scientific, technical, and vocational books. Classics which have been favorites for years are still read widely, but there seems to be increased interest in books which have been written recently, especially biography, travel, and books which adults are reading. One may question whether surveys of what pupils read disclose what actually interests them. For example, in the writer's study Seniors ranked biography second in interest, yet but one biography was listed among the ten books read by the largest number of Seniors. Other surveys have shown similar discrepancies, which should constitute a challenge to teachers who are attempting to guide pupils' reading.

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SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER AND AUBREY E. HAAN
Stanford University

*

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JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

512. GARY, STEPHEN. "Legislation on the Junior High School," *School Review*, XLVI (June, 1938), 428-36.
A review of state laws affecting the organization and the administration of junior high schools.
513. "Some California Junior High Schools—A Symposium," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (December, 1938), 469-92.
A symposium of articles on selected junior high schools in California. Each article describes how the school is trying to meet the needs of its pupils.

JUNIOR COLLEGE

514. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "Status of the Junior College in the United States, 1938-39," *School and Society*, XLIX (February 4, 1939), 158-60.
Gives statistics on the number of junior colleges in each state and on trends in enrolment and in personnel.
515. HARBESON, JOHN W. "Can Junior Colleges Meet Youth's Needs?" *Junior College Journal*, IX (January, 1939), 169-74.
Describes changes in the junior colleges necessitated by the altered character of their populations, changes in industry, and recent trends in our social and economic life. Contains brief discussions of five proposals for improvement.
516. MEAD, J. F. "Transfer Relations with Senior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, IX (February, 1939), 235-40.
Reports an extensive investigation into the transfer of credits from junior colleges to senior colleges in Texas. The investigation became the basis for revision of transfer policies of the Association of Texas Colleges.

517. "Unique Courses in California Junior Colleges—A Symposium," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (November, 1938), 398-429.

A symposium describing technical or semiprofessional courses in the following fields: hotel and restaurant service, oil-well machinery operation, business, building trades, forestry and lumbering, library clerical training, and aviation mechanics. A description of a unique junior-college museum is also included.

518. WILSON, THEODORE HALBERT. "The First Four-Year Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, IX (April, 1939), 361-65.

Describes the program of the Lasell Female Seminary, established at Auburn-dale, Massachusetts, in 1851.

ARTICULATION ¹

519. CONANT, JAMES BRYANT. "The University and the High School," *School and Society*, XLIX (February 11, 1939), 161-66.

Treats the changes in teacher training and in the relations of the university to the high school which are demanded by new conditions threatening to impair equal opportunity for education.

520. DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Secondary School Problems and the College," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIV (May, 1939), 301-6.

Discusses college preparation at the high-school level, articulation between secondary schools and colleges, and guidance of pupils in selecting a college to attend.

521. DWYER, P. S. "Some Suggestions concerning the Relationship Existing between Size of High School Attended and Success in College," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXII (December, 1938), 271-81.

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A survey of methods used by high schools and colleges to articulate the offerings of business subjects in the two types of institutions.

523. SHEEDER, FRANKLIN IRVIN. "Transition Problems of College Freshmen as Seen by the College Administrator," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XII (October, 1938), 117-25.

Reports results of an interview study of the problems of fifteen hundred Freshmen transferring from one hundred secondary schools to thirty eastern colleges.

524. TUCKER, ROBERT H. "Relationship between Secondary School and College," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (November, 1938), 3-10.

¹ See also Item 462 (Briggs) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1938, number of the *School Review*.

Argues the need for terminal courses at various levels in the educational system and for closer articulation between parts of the system. Describes several lines of procedure which the author believes to be effective in improving relations of college and secondary school.

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525. "Overcoming Problems of a Small High School—A Symposium," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIV (January and February, 1939), 15-40, 75-93.

Included are discussions of the building program, methods of retaining good teachers, financial forms, and a bibliography of research on the small high school.

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529. RUSSELL, JOHN DALE, and ASSOCIATES. *Vocational Education*. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 8. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. x+326.

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Gives the results of a comparative, sampling study of the educational and the vocational adjustments made by pupils who have been graduated and those who have dropped out of school in the metropolitan area of New York City.

¹ See also Items 463 (Wofford) and 478 in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1939, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

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Indicates the attitude of American youth toward the problems of unemployment, war, education, and democracy.

532. EDWARDS, NEWTON. *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth*. A Report to the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1939. Pp. x+190.

Shows the ability of states to support education, presents information on model plans of taxation in relation to that ability, and gives the number of youth that the states produce.

533. JOHNSON, PALMER O., and HARVEY, OSWALD L. *The National Youth Administration*. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 13. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. x+122.

A study of the educational program of the National Youth Administration.

534. LINDLEY, BETTY, and LINDLEY, ERNEST K. *A New Deal for Youth*. New York: Viking Press, 1938. Pp. xvi+316.

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535. STUDEBAKER, J. W., SHEATS, PAUL H., and WILLIAMS, CHESTER S. *Forums for Young People*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 25, 1937. Pp. vi+114.

Describes youth groups engaged in panels, forums, and symposiums. Indicates the use that may be made by the social-studies teacher of forums, panels, group discussions, and conferences.

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539. *Community Planning in Adult Education*. Prepared by the Staff of the Department of Adult Education, School of Education, New York University. New York: Service Bureau for Adult Education, Division of General Education, New York University, 1938. Pp. 66.
A manual of practical information for the administrator of classes for adults.
540. DEBATIN, FRANK M. *Administration of Adult Education*. New York: American Book Co., 1938. Pp. xii+486.
Summarizes current practices and problems in administering and organizing adult education.
541. STUDEBAKER, J. W., and WILLIAMS, CHESTER S. *Choosing Our Way*. United States Office of Education Bulletin, Misc. No. 1, 1937.
Describes the public forums conducted by the United States Office of Education and a number of those organized by other agencies. Gives a history of the movement and emphasizes the urgency of the need for more public discussion of major social problems.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL MALADJUSTMENTS OF YOUTH.—The plight of present-day youth, in school and out, is a theme by no means new to recent educational discussion. There is agreement that the prospect for youth is grave, if not actually catastrophic, the chief danger being deterioration of morale for large numbers of young persons while awaiting employment. Fear for the failure of the pupil graduated from high school almost equals the concern felt for the pupil withdrawing in the lower levels of high-school work. A widely accepted measure toward dealing with the situation has been the youth survey. Such surveys usually present, in marked detail, the chief maladjustments of young people, both in school and in the social world outside, and indicate trends in youths' attitudes, interests, traits, opinions regarding school courses, future plans, and the like. In some instances the school's shortcomings, particularly at the adolescent level, are pointed out, and comprehensive recommendations are made for improving or extending the school program. The ultimate value of the survey procedure undoubtedly resides in the degree to which it is used as a preliminary step in encouraging and assisting local high schools to undertake self-surveys and programs of continuous curriculum improvement.

One volume¹ of the published findings of the recent state-wide inquiry into the educational output of the public schools of New York is devoted to the problems of youth finishing or withdrawing from school. It consists of two parts. Part I, dealing with abilities, interests, and plans of pupils who leave or are graduated from high school, is the work of Ruth Eckert. It comprises three sections. The first describes the plan of study. The second section, concerned with school and home backgrounds of leaving pupils, contains chapters on school location of pupils, aptitudes of pupils for school work, and conditioning factors in the home. The third section, "Evidences of Social Competence," treats social traits and attitudes, interest patterns, future plans, and contributions of the school to everyday living. Part II, by Marshall, is concerned with adjustments of pupils after leaving school. It consists of seven chapters, dealing with techniques of the study, problems of high-school pupils, vocational adjustments, social adjustments, leisure-time activities, pupils from vocational schools, and a summary. There is a comprehensive appendix of directions and forms used in the studies.

¹ Ruth E. Eckert and Thomas O. Marshall, *When Youth Leave School*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xviii+360. \$3.00.

The data of Part I were obtained through tests, interest inventories, questionnaires, and special census cards, 53,091 pupils being involved. In Part II the interview technique was employed. Interviews were held with 1,965 pupils who had withdrawn or been graduated from high school and had not subsequently gone to college. Communities representative of the state were drawn upon throughout both investigations.

The contents of this book show every evidence of thorough and impersonal investigation on the part of the authors. It is pleasing to note, at the outset, that pupils leaving school before graduation are regarded as much the school's product as are those remaining to be graduated. Timely is the uncovering of trends showing that withdrawal is a more serious problem for the small than for the metropolitan communities, that the curriculum essentially favors boys as compared with girls, that the "measure of school success is predominantly factual" (p. 118), and that interests of pupils during the high-school stage run largely in patterns instead of being highly individual. Likewise, the studies shed current light on results of previous investigations in certain fields, corroborating the evidence of a dearth of educational and vocational guidance in high schools and of the selective character of the secondary schools.

Certain emphases in interpretation of the data will, in the opinion of the reviewer, be questioned by public-school workers. The repeated criticisms of the high school's shortcomings appear little tempered by appreciation of current obstacles in obtaining employment, even in the case of well-qualified adults. The criticisms of the general high school seem severe in the light of guidance and placement results obtained by the vocational schools, which specialize in the guidance function. Appreciation of the high school's other serious responsibilities, as well as its limitations with respect to overcoming financial and vocational difficulties, appear lacking, as evidenced by such statements as the following: "Nevertheless, the present results reveal decisively that the secondary school has not provided opportunities for its most handicapped pupils to overcome financial obstacles and to remain in school" (p. 85). Also, the authors give the appearance of emphasizing the type of guidance which attempts to prepare pupils for given occupations through conventional guidance facilities and services as contrasted with the training which aims to enable pupils to adjust themselves to current problems of school and community in order that they may be fitted to make adjustments to the complex social situations of future living.

Let there be no mistaking, however, the value which this thoroughgoing study of the problems of our high-school youth has for administrators, teachers, and lay members of educational boards. There are unmistakable challenges to drop restrictions inhibiting modern curriculum development; to know the non-academic interests, abilities, and needs of pupils; and to take the home into partnership with the school in the educative process. The book will be widely useful in classes in secondary education and in in-service courses for high-school teachers. Particularly should it be read by high-school administrators and other

directors of guidance activities. A reprint of the concise and illuminating chapter summaries, organized into a brochure, would serve to supplement the main volume and to make the chief findings of the study readily available to increasingly wide numbers of workers in educational and social fields and to interested lay readers.

PAUL R. PIERCE

*Wells High School
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A MANUAL OF GUIDANCE FOR TEACHERS OF MUSIC.—Instructors in rural and small urban school systems will be gratified that their problems have been selected for discussion in a book¹ recently published by two university professors. The purpose of the authors in compiling material was to meet the needs of the small graded school, including the school in which several grades must occupy one classroom. According to the Introduction, it is thought that the book will be welcomed and found useful by elementary- and high-school teachers, supervisors and special teachers, normal-school teachers, students in music schools and colleges, and school superintendents.

Although small in size, the volume covers a wide range of subjects. The chapters briefly discuss, among other things: aims and ideals, the art of singing, types of songs, time and rhythm, music appreciation, reading music, instrumental teaching, intervals and modes, classification of voices, creative work in music, musical organizations, conducting, correlation, radio, tests and measurements, and administration. Because of fragmentary treatment, the claim made by the editors that anybody interested in the teaching of music can, with the use of these materials, lay a firm foundation and achieve success in the development of this great art seems somewhat extravagant. The clear, direct style in which the book is written should, however, aid in directing the teacher and the student along the right path.

Definite materials and methods are cited for use in connection with various phases of music study. Some of the discussion needs further amplification, particularly for the inexperienced person. For example, meager help is given for correcting vocal defects, such as the inability to sing a melody accurately. Little attention is paid to the varying interests and abilities of pupils, and junior high school problems are scarcely mentioned. Only one approach to the teaching of music-reading is described. Brevity, although often a virtue, in such cases makes for ineffectiveness.

The questions placed at the end of each chapter as checks on the mastery of the text will be useful in teacher-training classes. A classified reading list, a bibliography of songs and other material, and a glossary of musical terms add

¹ Hazel Gertrude Kinsella and Elizabeth M. Tierney, *Music in the Small School*. Lincoln, Nebraska: Teachers College and the University Extension Division of the University of Nebraska, 1939. Pp. viii+176.

to the value of the book. The adequate Table of Contents and the Index are praiseworthy features. There are nine pages of illustrations. The binding is good, but paper and print are not of the finest quality.

ANNE E. PIERCE

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MATHEMATICS OF THE QUANTITATIVE ASPECT OF THINGS.—There has recently appeared a revision of a textbook in mathematics¹ for beginners in high school, the material of which has been definitely organized to be of practical value to the learner. The criterion of selection has been, "Will the material function in the less specialized issues of life?" No subject matter has been included merely because it may be needed in some later course in mathematics or because for some pupils it might have a theoretical interest. The contents of the book indicate clearly the richness of the available material.

Part I gives a "brushing-up" on elementary mathematics and extends the work on graphs, equations, and formulas in the solution of problems with the emphasis on "Why we do what we do." It is definite preparation for the solving of numerous practical problems of Part II.

The subject matter of Part II deals with such problems as the cost and the depreciation of an automobile, rate of interest when buying on the instalment plan, comparison between cost of an oil burner and coal, cost of owning a house, problems of owning a farm, insurance of all kinds, taxes, and a wide choice of problems dealing with the household, contracting, and the shop.

Throughout the book are "Topics for Discussion," the aim of which is to provoke thought on the connection between the classroom work and the social implication in the stream of life outside the classroom.

Part I and Part II are reversed if the philosophy be accepted that nothing shall be taught until there is a recognized need for it. It is suggested that the problems in Part II would readily indicate the need for a review of the fundamental processes, decimals, common fractions, and the concepts of percentage presented in Part I.

A. E. MALLORY

Colorado State College of Education

AN ATTEMPT AT REALISM IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL SOCIAL SCIENCE.—A specialist in the field of the secondary-school curriculum has joined with two professors of government, one in a state university and the other in a teachers' college, to prepare a new textbook² in the social-studies field designed for the junior high school. The authors of this book have endeavored to embody one of the most significant of all the recommendations contained in the Report of

¹ N. J. Lennes, *New Practical Mathematics*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. x+426.

² J. Cecil Parker, C. Perry Patterson, and Samuel B. McAlister, *Citizenship in Our Democracy*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1939. Pp. viii+404. \$1.20.

the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. The central idea of this book is realism. It represents an attempt to give the pupil a realistic understanding of the world in which he lives and of society as it actually operates.

This textbook is divided into five parts of unequal length. The first part, including some fifty pages, deals with the relations between the individual citizen and the group. The second part discusses how individuals through the agency of groups provide services which require co-operative action. This section is the longest; it occupies more than two hundred pages and comprises over half of the entire book. In this section are to be found discussions concerning education, public health, parks and recreation, public safety, traffic problems, crime, conservation of natural resources, problems of industry, security, communication, transportation, consumption, and finance. The third section deals with the organization of government, including elections, law-making, and taxation. The fourth part embodies a study of the Constitution. The book closes with a chapter on the achievement of ideals. The Appendix includes the text of the Constitution of the United States and of the Declaration of Independence, and an excellent index is provided.

This book diverges from other recent textbooks in several particulars. The teaching suggestions at the end of the chapters are less extensive than in the majority of books. Illustrations in many cases are not action pictures, and they are followed by titles rather than by descriptive paragraphs. The illustrative material includes no cartoons and no graphs.

Without question, realism in the field of social science is greatly needed. In the past much social-science teaching has been highly technical; government has been described as it is supposed to operate in theory rather than as it actually functions. A textbook which emphasizes realism should, then, be a useful tool in the hands of a teacher possessed of practical knowledge of affairs and of ability to see beneath the surface.

D. S. BRAINARD

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A BALANCED PROGRAM FOR ART EDUCATION.—Leon L. Winslow has always been a staunch advocate of sound policies in art education. In his administration of art as a subject in the schools of Baltimore, he has avoided the tragic "fads and frills" which have weakened many programs of art-teaching. Because of these facts, a new publication by Winslow¹ is welcomed as a guide to present-day organization and teaching of art.

The Integrated School Art Program presents an approach to art for the lower grades as an outgrowth of the curriculum as a whole. In the higher grades, where departmental work is indicated, school experiences involving informa-

¹ Leon Loyal Winslow, *The Integrated School Art Program*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xiv+392. \$3.50.

tion are carefully integrated with those involving activity. Thus the book is a course of study in art offering a well-balanced body of ordered aesthetic experience.

Winslow, like all present-day art educators, advocates creative expression as a distinctive part of a balanced offering in the arts, but he clearly points out that "the best creative results are those secured where the acquisition by the pupils of significant art information guarantees that expression shall be the adequate embodiment of ideas" (p. 48). He believes in building a foundation for appreciation and functional knowledge by "stimulating and nurturing of aesthetic experiences" (p. 53).

The broad scope of the book is suggested by the following division titles: I. "Art in a Changing World," II. "Art Education To Meet Modern Needs," III. "Activity Experience in Art Education," IV. "The Organization of Instructional Material," V. "Art in the Elementary Schools," VI. "The Junior High School Program," VII. "Art Courses in the Senior High Schools," VIII. "The School Museum," IX. "The Discovery and Evaluation of Art Abilities," and X. "Books on the Arts."

The section dealing with "The Organization of Instructional Material" (pp. 95-104) carries particular significance at the present period of chaos in methods of teaching. This section and the following sections dealing with the content and organization in elementary, junior high, and senior high schools furnish convincing proof that only through careful and systematic planning can successful educational programs be developed in art or in any other aspect of the school program.

The aim of the book may be expressed as "greater art educational returns from activities" (p. 55). This aim is well carried out in the tabular outlines presented as guides for the "organization of educational experience into teaching units" (p. 102).

Winslow has put the result of many years of successful professional practice as teacher and supervisor of art into a book which makes a distinctive contribution to the literature of the field.

W. G. WHITFORD

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NEW TEXTBOOKS IN FARM MANAGEMENT AND ELEMENTARY AGRICULTURE.—For those who have survived the teaching of "farm-management principles" for these many years, the use of this rather concrete presentation of farm facts¹ will be a distinct pleasure. Speaking from long experience in the field of farm management and with unusual knowledge of teaching problems in the field of secondary education, the author has here presented an extremely interesting and usable book for farmers and prospective farm managers. Three high

¹ Robert R. Hudelson, *Farm Management*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. x+396. \$1.80.

points in the book which will appeal particularly to teachers of agriculture are the sections on factor analysis, approximate feed-requirement tables, and the interpretation of farm accounts. An excellent display of tables, graphs, and pictures is arranged throughout the book.

A rather complete introduction to the field has been presented in such a manner that it will be read by high-school pupils. In this section the author has shown a fine knowledge of the economic factors which have brought the country to its present state in farming and has given a vivid picture of the contrast between farm and city life. In the light of our present understanding of population and migration trends, however, it would seem that the city has received rather severe treatment. The author states that cities have little more to offer than crowds and lost identity; that the pressure is so great that some persons, lacking the moral fiber to live on what they can earn, are crowded into remunerative but short lives of crime. Is it correct to put forth the idea that no crime occurs in rural areas? In view of the fact that from 25 to 50 per cent of the pupils who study agriculture in the high schools do not go into farming, do they not deserve a more accurate interpretation of the values of city life?

The whole field of farm management is treated by the use of up-to-the-minute materials, especially in the case of "strip-cropping" and the newer ideas of adjusting production to demand. Farm buildings receive particular attention, discussion being included with regard to the spacing between buildings and with regard to the better types of buildings which have been developed as a result of experimental studies. The chapter on pastures is so graphic that the reader can readily understand the feasibility of developing a complete pasture program. As mentioned before, the approximate feed requirements for farm animals at various ages are given in clear-cut form in comparatively short tables. This item is often neglected in high-school textbooks on agriculture and, since it is greatly needed in working out management problems, will be much appreciated by both teachers and pupils.

Section III of the book, "Farm Finance and Farm Accounts," gives a compact survey of the problems encountered in acquiring a farm. Insurance for the farmer, an often neglected subject, is here given full treatment. The portion concerned with measuring farm efficiency will be of particular value to part-time and evening classes because of the satisfactory and workable interpretation given to farm accounts. Since many agriculture students take no other course in business training, this presentation should serve as a powerful motivating force in the establishment of correct attitudes and patterns for vocational students who must keep project records.

A much more general picture is to be found in a new publication by Phillips, Cockefair, and Graham.¹ In their consideration of farming and farm life they have developed an elementary textbook for use in the study of the basic agri-

¹ Harry A. Phillips, Edgar A. Cockefair, and James W. Graham, *Agriculture and Farm Life*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. xiv+496.

cultural sciences. The scope of the book is suggested by the major divisions dealing with farming as an occupation, the farmer's concern with life, dairying and poultry-raising, the field crops, horticultural crops, the apiary, soils and their conservation, meat and other animal products, farm power and machinery, and the business of farming. The following quotation gives a picture of the entire field which the authors have attempted to cover in a general manner: "A good farmer must have the knowledge of a scientist, the business sense of a merchant, and the mechanical skill of a machinist. He must be a good biologist, know the laws of feeding, the laws of heredity, the life habits of insects, and the treatment of plant and animal diseases" (p. 28). An exceptionally fine piece of orientation work has been performed in the first unit, which should do much to help establish in the mind of the pupil the place of agriculture in the economic and social setup.

The pictures included have been selected with unusually good taste. Throughout the book there is a constantly recurring emphasis on basic biological principles often neglected in agricultural books. The inclusion of this material is especially desirable in an elementary textbook and will do much to counteract the evil effects of teaching animal husbandry, soils and crops, farm management, and so forth, as unrelated subjects, as is the practice in many departments of vocational agriculture. The book presents in a satisfactory manner a general overview of the whole field of agriculture as a vocation. While it does not present a complete treatise on any of the numerous enterprises and would need to be supplemented by much reference material if used above Grade IX, it contains many of the intricate bits of knowledge which make farming both interesting and profitable. It is an excellent textbook for use in the teaching of elementary agriculture.

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GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- BEALL, ELIZABETH. *The Relation of Various Anthropometric Measurements of Selected College Women to Success in Certain Physical Activities*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 774. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. viii+68.
- BINGHAM, N. ELDRED. *Teaching Nutrition in Biology Classes: An Experimental Investigation of High School Biology Pupils in Their Study of the Relation of Food to Physical Well-Being*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 772. A Lincoln School Research Study. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. viii+118.

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- CLARK, JOHN R., OTIS, ARTHUR S., and HATTON, CAROLINE. *Primary Arithmetic through Experience*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1939. Pp. xiv+218. \$1.40.
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- BRIGGS, MILTON S., and BLANCHARD, CLYDE I. *Ten Popular Bookkeeping Projects: For Use with Any Bookkeeping Text*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1939. Pp. x+70. \$0.40.
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